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SELECTING TEACHERS FOR THE NEXT GENERATION

FINAL enrolment figures for the American educational system for the autumn of 1946 are not yet available, but it appears likely that more young people are receiving secondary and higher education than ever before. The Bureau of the Census estimated that elementary and high schools would enrol 24,000,000 pupils. Colleges report astonishing expansions of estimated enrolments. From 14,000 students in 1939-40, the University of Illinois anticipated 23,000 students for the current year. According to the *United States News* for September 6, 1946, increases range from 10 per cent to 65 per cent. Typical of the greatest jumps in enrolment are those at the University of Chicago, estimated at 11,000 compared to a pre-war 7,600; University of Michigan, jumping from 12,000 to 18,500; and Northwestern University, with a rise from 6,000 in 1939 to 8,900. Junior colleges, too, are sharing in this great demand for edu-

cation. At least 355,000 students are expected by the 630 junior colleges reporting to the American Association of Junior Colleges, according to Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary.

The strain on the educational resources of the nation has nearly reached a breaking-point, as evidenced by the frantic struggles of administrators to fill the vacant teachers' desks. Qualifications and merit have been largely sacrificed on the theory that providing a teacher to meet the class is of greater importance than holding out for superior teachers. "The Crisis in Teaching," as brought to the fore by the American Council on Education bulletin of that title, was discussed in these columns last month. The implications of the crisis for the years beyond the present emergency appear to deserve further consideration.

Because the schools are in need of teachers to fill the gaps in their staffs at the earliest possible date, there is great pressure on teacher-training in-

stitutions to recruit as many young people as possible. Yet there is real danger that, in our haste to train every possible teacher for early service, many less-than-able young people may be invited into the profession, where they will act as a dead weight. Large enrolments in colleges offer the hope of adequate numbers of teachers in training, especially as one hears of veterans turning to teaching as an interest growing out of their war experiences in leadership. Yet schools are reluctant, in the face of the crying need for teachers, to screen applicants for teacher training except on academic qualifications. Between the dilemma of supplying no teachers for some of next year's vacancies and preparing candidates of doubtful merit, there is little choice.

Many hope to improve the quality of recruits to teaching by a marked increase in teachers' salaries. W. E. Peik, speaking for a commission of the National Education Association, has just released to the press an appeal that salaries for qualified teachers be raised to a minimum of \$2,400, with a salary after ten years' experience of \$4,000. Whether such an ideal condition can be approached or not, it is clear that the schools, in urging more money for teachers, must be able to guarantee the public that that money will buy a high quality of service. Some conditions operative at present suggest that just the opposite could come about. If it is true, as many think, that the current boom is at its peak, we are entering a phase of the

economic cycle where the securities of teaching will seem highly important. Teachers who have entered the profession under wartime conditions, when there have been few opportunities for selection and a job for every certified teacher, will cling to their positions. To a large degree, those who drop out of the field will be the teachers who should be kept. The girl with the pleasing, undriven personality will find many opportunities to concentrate her interest in children on the task of rearing a family of her own. The teacher who must remain in the profession because it offers her security is likely to become a liability.

Glenn M. Blair has published a threatening finding in the May, 1946, *Journal of Educational Research*. After testing 205 experienced teachers and 152 prospective teachers, he found four times as many seriously maladjusted persons among the teachers with experience. Either teaching is a hazardous occupation, or, more likely, the very persons whom we wish to retain in teaching tend to drop out into other work or marriage. Teacher-training instructors have frequently watched with enthusiasm the progress of well-adjusted, competent girls, only to learn, as graduation approached, that these young women had announced their engagements and planned to teach only one year at most. Yet the unhappy, compulsive girl who had entered teaching for relief from her own tensions is likely to be a candidate for a job and to remain in that job for years.

E. O. Melby has recently given a vivid statement of the importance of the quality of teachers, in a speech delivered to the Twenty-second Annual Educational Conference of the University of Kentucky and the Eleventh Annual Meeting of the Kentucky Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

In comparison with other professions, education has a peculiar quality. Let us compare it for a moment with architecture and building construction. In the construction of a building it makes some difference *what* is done. It makes some difference *how* that something is done, but it makes relatively little difference *who* does it as long as the plans and specifications are followed. In teaching, also, it does make some difference *what* you do, and it makes some difference *how* you do it, but it makes an enormous difference *who* does it. In fact, the question of *who* does the teaching is probably the most important question in the quality of any individual's education. The individual teacher places his signature on his work just as truly as the painter who writes his in the lower right-hand corner of the painting.

The responsibility clearly lies on the officers admitting teachers to training. Probably little can be done about the attrition of other attractions on the force of trained teachers, but perhaps effort can guarantee that the residue after attrition will be of high caliber, deserving of our dreamed-of salaries. Research on the possible methods of selecting teachers for training is imperative, and there is real prospect of success. May V. Seagoe, in "Prediction of In-Service Success in Teaching," the latest of a series of papers on this problem, reports significant suc-

cess in the *Journal of Educational Research* for May, 1946. Tests given to students entering teacher training in 1941 were correlated with success in teaching positions, as judged by their administrative superiors in 1945. Single tests giving correlations above .50 were the Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale and the Thurstone Personality Schedule. These values are striking, in view of the problems inherent in judging good teaching in the field. The study, one must note, is based on only twenty-five cases. In recent years, the Rorschach inkblot test, the Morgan and Murray Thematic Apperception Test, and other new instruments have proved exceptionally revealing of attitudes toward other persons and emotional conflicts. It may be that we are entering a period in which modern psychological devices can identify, for our recruiting efforts, the sort of teachers worth the highest salaries that society can afford.

COLLEGE LIFE UNDER DIFFICULTIES

HEROIC measures to care for the influx of college students are being reported on all sides. The housing problem has been particularly pressing. Among the drastic solutions reported is Harvard's "commuting" plan, whereby hundreds of students will live in barracks more than thirty miles from the campus. Most campuses have their rows of Quonset huts or prefabricated houses crowded with students, wives, and babies. Even

with this stretching of living accommodations, many universities have found it necessary to request small schools far from the campus to offer instruction for Freshmen. The University of Illinois has opened a branch in Chicago and has placed students in junior colleges and high schools, from which they will eventually transfer to the University. The University of Wisconsin will offer the full program of Freshman studies at centers near the homes of the students. Thirty-four such centers will be opened, under the University Extension Division, in which more than five thousand students are expected to enrol. Teaching will be done by "circuit-riding" faculty members from Madison.

These changes will bring about a new kind of college life. Maintaining "college spirit" will be difficult with a student body scattered over an entire state or spending long periods in traveling. Whether these austere conditions will make for better or poorer academic work is uncertain. Extra-curriculum activities will have adequate support from the fortunate students in campus dormitories, but the students at outlying points will be deprived of whatever values activities may have. An additional social readjustment is demanded by the high percentage of married students now enrolled. The concerns, interests, and living habits of a man with a family are very different from those of the carefree adolescent who once monopolized the undergraduate campus. The role of the fraternity in a campus with

a new pattern of housing and a group of more mature student leaders may be in question. The recreation pattern appropriate to the needs of "dating" students may not be satisfactory to married couples. New social opportunities will be required on many campuses to provide adequate recreation for a wife otherwise cooped in a twenty-by-thirty-foot "pre-fab" and for couples with the varied interests of young adults.

The long-needed provision of financial assistance to the able student supplied by the G. I. Bill of Rights does not appear to have eliminated financial problems. With the cost of living rising steadily, the veteran's allowance is shrinking. A study by W. A. Spurr of the University of Chicago School of Business, reported by the *New York Sun*, shows:

Only one-fifth of the single students who receive a government grant of \$65, plus books and tuition, can get by on a minimum \$95, . . . since the average single man spends \$115 a month.

Married men fare even worse. The government allows them \$90 a month for living expenses, but only a bare fifth of this group can manage on a minimum of \$135, and the average married man with a family spends \$165 a month.

Monthly expenses of the single men, according to the University survey, are as follows:

	Average	Minimum
Rent	\$ 25	\$22
Board	50	45
Laundry	7	5
Recreation	13	8
Incidentals	20	15
Total	\$115	\$95

NEW TEACHING MATERIALS

Films for Teachers and administrators will welcome the announcement from a number of sources of the availability of new films that can be used as teaching aids.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films (20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, Illinois) has recently announced six new text films on football and basketball. Andrew Kerr, football coach of Colgate College in Hamilton, New York, helped in the preparation of the three football films, which deal with "Tackling in Football," "Blocking in Football," and "Ball Handling in Football." Wilbur Johns, basketball coach at the University of California at Los Angeles, collaborated in the preparation of the three films on basketball, which bear these titles: "Defensive Footwork," "Ball Handling," and "Shooting in Basketball."

Coronet Instructional Films (919 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Illinois) has also released information on fourteen new one-reel sound motion pictures for classroom use. Prints are available in color or in black and white. Each film has been produced in collaboration with subject-matter and teaching specialists and further checked by actual classroom use. The range of titles covered by the films includes "We Discover the Dictionary," "How To Study," "The Nature of Color," "Matter and Energy," "Spelling Is Easy," and "Maps Are Fun." Prints are available for preview by those interested in purchasing them.

Eight new subjects have been added to the 16-mm. education sound films produced by the March of Time Forum Edition for use in schools. Titles of the new films are "The Philippine Republic," "Palestine," "Greece," "Britain and Her Empire," "Italy," "Music in America," "The Pacific Coast," and "Life with Baby." A booklet describing the eight new films and eighteen pictures previously released may be obtained from the March of Time Forum Edition, Department C, 369 Lexington Avenue, New York 17, New York.

Educational workers will also be pleased to learn of a Navy announcement to the effect that more than five hundred training films are being made available to educational institutions. The films were produced during the war by the Motion Picture Production Section of the United States Naval Photographic Service. Of special interest to school people are the films dealing with engineering, aviation, machine-shop work, office practices, sciences, safety and first aid, and electricity and radio. Inquiries should be addressed to the United States Office of Education, Washington 25, D.C.

Knowledge Builders, 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22, New York, announces a series of films on "Practical Geometry." According to the announcement, "boys and girls will be greatly relieved to learn that their work in some phases of mathematics has been greatly reduced by means of sound motion pictures." A typical

film, "Congruent Figures," is described as follows:

A concise demonstration of the geometric principles for finding and proving that triangles with "equal sides," "equal angles," or the combinations of both are equal and congruent. The effective combination of actual photographic scenes, animated drawings, lettered equations, and recorded sound make this a convincing teaching tool.

Still another new film is "Of These Our People," a treatment of the contribution of Jews in America, which is released by Horizon Films, 232 West Fourteenth Street, New York 11, New York. This is planned as the first of a series of films on minority groups.

Whether all these films add sufficiently to the quality of instruction to be worth their cost is a question of importance, in view of the flood of new production. The test of time will separate the films which improve teaching from those which merely give an air of modernization to old material. Nevertheless, it is encouraging to view the wide range of topics to which producers are turning their medium. It begins to be clear that there are few subjects in which effective visual or auditory presentations cannot provide some helpful experiences and learning activities.

Principles of skilful teaching With the current increased reliance on audio-visual aids, there is growing a realization that these aids, far from replacing the teacher, give him new responsibility for conducting learning skilfully. The

still-too-common method of "showing" a film as an independent event rather than as an integrated part of the learning unit is under continual attack. New procedures worth the attention of every teacher are being proposed. A notable example is a discussion of demonstration films by Mark A. May, of Yale University, in the *Journal of Educational Psychology* for January, 1946. He summarizes his treatment as follows:

1. Before attempting to use any film—of any type—the teacher should know its contents as thoroughly as he knows any subject matter that he is supposed to teach. For one thing, the teacher should make a list of the unit skills demanded by the film. If any child is deficient in these skills, the defects should, if possible, be corrected before he is exposed to the film. The commentary should be analyzed from the standpoint of the abilities of the pupils to comprehend fully its meaning.

2. Before the film is shown its purpose should be explained to the pupils and some "hints" or pointers given as to how best to learn from it. Here the teacher should stress the importance of remembering the directions as to how the operations should be performed. Something may also be said about what to look for in the film, and what items, elements, or features may be ignored as irrelevant.

3. After the film has been run the teacher should immediately conduct a group discussion in which each member of the class is given an opportunity to rehearse verbally and orally the directions that he has learned. Errors and omissions will be corrected by the class and the teacher. Out of the discussion should emerge a fairly complete set of directions which are put on the board and copied by each pupil in a notebook. Diagrams and illustrations may be used freely, if needed.

4. These directions may be checked by

running the picture a second time before the pupils try their hands at the skill.

5. Each pupil may now be given an opportunity to try his hand at the skill under the supervision of a teacher. From this point on, however, he is learning by trial and error, by instruction from his teacher, or by direct imitation of the teacher. In some instances it may be worth while to run the film a third and a fourth time. But unless the pupils want to see it for some special purpose, they will find it increasingly dull and boring.

A timely filmstrip Teachers who have found the motion picture a relatively formal means of presenting subject matter are turning more and more to the filmstrip, which adapts readily to the type of utilization suggested by May. An increasing supply of materials in this form is becoming available. Two new slidefilms bearing the titles "How To Live with the Atom" and "World Control of Atomic Energy" have been released by Film Publishers (12 East Forty-fourth Street, New York 17, New York) in co-operation with the National Committee on Atomic Information and the American Federation of Atomic Scientists.

The slidefilm consists of separate cartoons photographed on consecutive frames of a five-foot strip of 35-mm. film. The first slidefilm visualizes the various ways being currently considered to avoid destruction by atomic warfare. The second explains in visual detail the plans proposed by the State Department for international atomic control. Both films combine explanation with indoctrination for a particular solution of the atomic problem. A

narration to be read with the film cartoons, or a transcription of the narration, reinforces this use of the film. Teachers who wish to provoke discussion of the alternative solutions rather than indoctrination will also find the cartoons thought-provoking.

Other uses of filmstrips The Public Affairs Committee (22 East Thirty-eighth Street, New York 16, New York) now supplements its printed Public Affairs Pamphlets, which are entering their eleventh year, with a series of filmstrip packets. Each packet is based on one of the current pamphlets and provides material to stimulate discussion and a script for the discussion leader. The first three packets to be released are "We Are All Brothers" (based on the famous *Races of Mankind* pamphlet), "Foreign Trade—It's Good Business," and "Your Stake in Collective Bargaining."

Teachers of the social studies in junior high school will be interested in a report by Dina M. Bleich appearing in *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City* for September, 1946. She describes a complete program based on "We Are All Brothers," together with the motion picture, "Don't Be a Sucker," issued by the Office of War Information. Classroom procedures, questions used to promote learning, and excerpts from children's answers are presented. Her other reports regarding visual instruction for guidance in human relations, stimulating club participation,

and aiding ninth-grade boys to select and purchase graduation clothing, are worth the attention of the teacher.

Use of filmstrips for testing is described in an unpublished report, "Comparative Study of Verbalized and Projected Pictorial Tests in Gunnery," from the Training Aids Section, Ninth Naval District Headquarters, Great Lakes, Illinois. Pictorial questions dealing with visual learnings from a training course were found to cover the subject matter more directly than verbal questions and to have exceptionally high reliability and correlation with ability to perform the skills taught. "Quiz-Pix," as this new test was called, should have great value in many school subjects.

Significant research A new emphasis in research on audio-visual materials that will grow in importance stresses the exact measurement of outcomes from teaching materials. This approach attempts to determine the production and utilization techniques which are helpful to the learner and those which are not. While it is known that teaching materials are in general beneficial, unofficial reports of this new type of research seem to indicate that most teaching materials actually confuse the learner on some points or teach him misconceptions. Identification of the sources of this difficulty should lead to greater efficiency in teaching materials.

Much may be anticipated from a promised report, *Motion Picture Test-*

ing and Research, edited by James J. Gibson, which will summarize the extensive analysis made of films used by the Army Air Forces during the war. Previous news releases from the armed services have done much to propagandize for more widespread use of audio-visual aids but have not given great insight into the problems and weaknesses encountered. This new volume will be "a description of psychological research on motion pictures and motion-picture tests, including a discussion of aptitude and proficiency tests developed, and the technique of motion-picture-test construction; research on the recognition of aircraft; perceptual factors in pilot selection and training; and instructional techniques peculiar to motion pictures." This will be one of a series of nineteen reports in aviation psychology. Orders should be sent to the Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D.C.

In an important study on utilization of audio-visual materials, Walter Arno Wittich and John Guy Fowlkes compare methods of teaching with films in Grades IV, V, and VI. An experimental group which was carefully prepared for the film, tested after the film, given an opportunity for discussion of the film the next day, and tested after a second viewing of the film, gained almost twice as much as pupils who merely "saw the film" and gained far more than pupils who were properly prepared but saw the film only once. The report, which provides considerable insight into pupil learn-

ing, is published under the title *Audio-visual Paths to Learning* by Harper and Brothers.

CURRENT SCHOOL PRACTICES

Delinquent parents Parents of delinquent children are being taught in guidance classes in San Francisco, according to the American Public Welfare Association. Parents are required to attend eight class meetings dealing with community recreational and welfare facilities, parent-child relationships, and personal development. The procedure is credited with marked reductions in delinquency.

A survey of 68 families referred to the center by juvenile court judges disclosed that 88 per cent—or all but seven—of the children had made successful adjustments at home and in their school and social life. Automobile infractions by San Francisco youths have been reduced significantly during the past three years, and it is reported that high-school students have improved their behavior to spare their parents being required to attend guidance center classes.

The plan is being adopted in Dearborn, Michigan, Topeka, Kansas, and elsewhere.

A report on guidance The Fargo (North Dakota) High School's plan for guidance is described by Clifford P. Froehlich in the *Clearing House* for September, 1946. The program, which has been in operation for five years, assigns each pupil to a faculty counselor for guidance. This plan replaced a homeroom system. Froehlich discusses the values and

weaknesses of the new plan; in some respects, the home-room plan was found to be superior.

Helping the gifted pupil A bulletin written by Elise H. Martens and published by the United States Office of Education (Bulletin No. 1, 1946) carries the title *Curriculum Adjustments for Gifted Children*. Part I lists objectives and viewpoints and describes plans for grouping, special classes, and other administrative procedures in large and small communities. Part II describes in detail experience units in citizenship, intercultural education, science, English, and community service projects.

The challenging character of the plans described is evidenced by a few examples. Superior junior high school pupils were given an "up-to-date" course in American history, based on such units of continuity as "Democracy Engages in Social Reform." Another junior high school group departed from social science to study medicine. This led to bone collections, studies of prehistoric man, first-aid projects, and surveys of classroom lighting. High-school biology students became "specialists" who assisted in teaching elementary-school groups.

Education in economics Plans for integrating educational programs with the future economic and social needs of pupils are discussed in the *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals* for May, 1946, under the

title "Education for Improved Community Life." The Association's Advisory Committee on the Economic Core Curriculum, headed by Will French, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, draws together descriptions of curriculum revisions in schools receiving aid from the Sloan Foundation, together with a discussion of objectives and general principles.

Not only new curriculum units in "applied economics" but also methods of teaching teachers to develop these newer methods are described. Programs from Florida, Kentucky, Vermont, Georgia, and other states are outlined. The plans emphasize a "core" program, based on the feeling that "there should be, at the heart of every high-school student's program, a closely integrated body of experience with the problems and situations which must be successfully met and faced by youth in America."

Better reading interests A successful project to improve the reading interests of junior high school students is reported by Mrs. Rose L. Ballard, librarian of the Central Junior High School, Rock Island, Illinois, in *Illinois Libraries*, a publication of the Illinois State Library at Springfield, Illinois. An attractive room set aside as a reading-room was used as a focus for activities based on books. Bulletin-board displays, book-week programs, and an assembly dramatizing the story-book charac-

ters were scattered throughout the year. The author reports considerable success in developing motivation for reading worth-while books.

DEVELOPMENTS IN TESTING

Essay vs. objective tests In a vigorous clarification of the distinctive contributions of the essay and objective forms of tests, Frank N. Freeman, dean of the School of Education at the University of California, speaks for greater emphasis on good essay questions. He writes in the *Educational Forum* for May, 1946, as follows:

The use of so-called objective examinations has become very widespread. . . . Along with this extensive use has grown up the dogma that objective tests provide the only satisfactory examining instrument, and that the essay examination is entirely outmoded. . . .

What is the purpose of teaching and of examination, and what is the relation of this purpose to the student's later life, personal or professional? I think we may say that one of the chief purposes is to produce understanding or comprehension. This is something much broader and deeper than the accumulation of facts, though it has an essential relation to facts. Facts are the means, or part of the means to understanding, but they are not understanding itself. . . . In truth, the function of facts is largely to serve as a sort of scaffolding to understanding. . . .

There is a certain precision and neatness in objective measurement and a susceptibility to statistical manipulation that is very attractive—and for certain purposes, useful. As an exclusive, and perhaps even a chief, method of evaluation of learning, however, it is fundamentally inadequate. Only by rigidly channeling the student's thoughts can they

be represented by a single number. By so doing the infinite variety of the individuals' thinking is ignored, and the possibility of checking and guiding the development of the students' ideas, conceptions and points of view is abandoned. This, to be sure, is a delicate process, but it lies at the heart of teaching. . . .

I maintain that the most delicate and direct means of exploring the student's mind as of instructing him, is still the method of exposition and discussion. Nothing comparable to it yet has been devised as a means of revealing the students' thinking, or as a means of cultivating the ability to think. I suggest that we recover our balance, confining objective tests to those uses to which they are fitted, and restoring the free expression of thought through language to the position of dignity which it deserves.

A challenging report

A survey of aptitude tests for higher education, published by the Yale University Press under the title *Forecasting College Achievement*, will undoubtedly stimulate far-reaching reconsideration of the structure and function of mental tests. The present volume is the first of a projected series, in which Albert B. Crawford and Paul S. Burnham direct the attention of high-school and college counselors to the possible improvement of testing methods. They lash out vigorously at the widely used current tests of general academic ability and propose, instead, a plan whereby different tests are used in different subject areas. In the following comments they compare their proposals with those under which was established the Cooperative Test Service:

This provided a wide series of objective *achievement* tests, not only of "general culture," as appraised by a standard battery, but also of acquired learning in many subjects and at various educational levels. This has proved of tremendous value in educational selection, placement, and counseling. Is it too much to hope that some parallel battery, evaluating relative *aptitude* (readiness-to-learn) for the various major areas of collegiate work, may likewise be developed? It is our firm opinion, buttressed by a considerable weight of evidence . . . that further experimentation with some uniform set of educational aptitude measures, nationally administered but centrally controlled, is of major importance for the effective selection, measurement, encouragement, and guidance of American youth.

The authors suggest that present tests are perhaps overemphasizing one type of mental power to the exclusion of others. They propose to measure the separate aspects of aptitude, and they warn that "five or six hours of testing time are needed for thorough 'all-over' evaluation." A preliminary battery developed at Yale University is composed of separate tests of verbal facility, linguistic aptitude, verbal reasoning, quantitative reasoning, mathematical aptitude, spatial visualizing, and mechanical ingenuity. Whether or not these tests, or others like them, eventually replace our current practice of labeling each pupil with a single rating of mental ability, the reader who studies the arguments of Crawford and Burnham will be made aware of many fallacies in his own use of tests.

Report from the A.A.F. The public-relations-conscious Army Air Forces appears to have "scooped" the other branches of the service in placing before educators the findings from their vast wartime experiences in education. According to a preliminary announcement, a nineteen-volume series of reports on "The Aviation Psychology Research Program" is to be printed soon. In view of the vast influence that World War I practices in testing exerted on the testing movement in the public schools, one may anticipate many implications for education in these new studies. Each volume is a report on research and program organization, edited by a psychologist who served in the program during the war. Five volumes deal with testing, including a complete volume on *Apparatus Tests*, which were developed to a high degree in this program. Training research and tested methods are reported in volumes dealing with training of pilots, bombardiers, navigators, gunners, radar operators, and flight engineers.

This is probably the largest single vocational-education program that has ever been used for learning complex skills. The fact that procedures were constantly tested by research methods should provide important new viewpoints on training. Advance orders for the series or for separate volumes are requested by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C. The price will be \$2.00 a volume, or \$35.00 for the complete set.

Individual test of mental ability Guidance workers will welcome the announcement of Form II of the Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scales. This parallels Form I, which has been in use for several years in clinical and educational programs. Addition of the parallel form will make this practical and meaningful individual test even more valuable to the secondary school. The simplicity of the test and its interest value for adolescents and adults, particularly those of low ability, make it an important tool. Its usefulness is increased by the possible "diagnostic" breakdown of ability through the observance of performance on a variety of verbal and nonverbal tasks. Information about the test may be obtained from the Psychological Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

A test on plot completion Publication of a new and interesting test in literature offers the possibility of exploration of personality through the English course. Designed by Sarah I. Roody, the Plot Completion Test is published by W. Wilbur Hatfield, 211 West Sixty-eighth Street, Chicago 21, Illinois. The test presents ten situations related to adolescent life in school and home. The pupil is directed to choose the most probable, or natural, outcome of each situation. Responses are judged in terms of literary taste, on the assumption that good literature is that which reflects life truly. A further analysis is suggested to detect prefer-

ences for morbid, wishful, or superstitious solutions. These data are to be used by counselors, together with other facts about the child. Evidence on the validity of the test is incomplete.

Are today's pupils less intelligent? Convincing evidence that mental testing has come of age is offered by

a recent publication of the Stanford University Press. F. H. Finch's *Enrolment Increases and Changes in the Mental Level of the High-School Population* is Number 10 in the series of Applied Psychology Monographs. Finch takes advantage of group mental tests given by W. S. Miller as early as 1923 to test the hypothesis that the great expansion of the high school has led to a dilution of the quality of pupils. Many have thought that, with the passing of the aristocratic concept of education, it would be necessary to soften the curriculum to the less selected mind. Finch's findings are striking and important:

Data . . . collected from published sources show that the average intelligence quotients reported on various occasions between 1916 and 1942 have not declined during that period. Instead, there is some evidence indicating a slight upward trend. The second type of data was obtained through repeating an intelligence test in certain high schools where it had been given several years earlier. The results are consistent with those shown by comparisons based on the first type of data, in that they likewise reveal no loss in the average level of measured mental ability as enrolments increased. . . .

There is relatively good evidence indicat-

ing that selection has favored to some extent the retention of mentally superior students and that as enrolments multiplied this selection became somewhat less favorable. From the findings of this study, it would appear that the effects of less favorable selection among more recent high-school pupils with respect to measured mental ability have been fully overcome by compensating factors. It is suggested that these factors include both (a) more effective education, particularly in the elementary schools, and (b) more favorable out-of-school environment. An unknown portion of the apparent gains may be due to increasing "test-wiseness," as this factor has probably operated in some cases.

It may be inferred that further increases in high-school enrolments are thoroughly feasible, so far as any limitations growing out of the potential academic ability of youth now being eliminated from school are concerned. Such an extension of secondary education can probably be carried to the point at which all youth except a very small group of defectives are attending secondary school.

MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS

A new world From a World Conference of the Teaching

Profession, meeting at Endicott, New York, on August 17-30, 1946, comes news of further steps toward co-operation for objectives of world-wide importance. Delegates from twenty-eight American and Western European nations, and China and Iraq met to discuss ways in which education could aid in international co-operation and in rehabilitation. Among the proposals discussed were world-wide exchange of teachers and students between nations, need for a universal language and greater study of languages, development of com-

mon world textbooks, and elimination of extreme nationalism from the curriculum. A new organization, the World Organization of the Teaching Profession, will be established as a result of the conference.

Help from the C.A.A. Specialists in aviation education are now available to assist schools interested in all types of educational activities related to education, "from work with boy model-builders to consultation on flight training of veterans." The seven specialists have completed an intensive course in preparation for the new service and are now stationed around the country at Civil Aeronautics Administration offices. Regional centers for the service are located in New York, Atlanta, Chicago, Fort Worth, Kansas City, Santa Monica, and Seattle.

Success of the veterans Results of Regents' examinations administered to former servicemen in New York indicate that these men are achieving a high degree of success. Men who attended classes in day and evening high schools succeeded in passing almost four-fifths of the examinations for which they were candidates. Success was greatest in English and social studies, with more failures on the more difficult examinations in mathematics and physical science.

Dropouts from evening-school classes during the summer were reported at a record low of 17 per cent.

Guidance materials A presentation of basic topics in self-appraisal and careers that will appeal to many teachers and pupils is available in *The Pattern of My Tomorrow* by Blanche Paulson, a pamphlet published by the Bureau of Child Study of the Board of Education of the City of Chicago. Written in a clear and entertaining style, the booklet stimulates the pupil to consider his characteristics in relation to possible job opportunities. Chapter headings include "What Are Your Plans?" "Let's Take Stock," "Understanding the Percentile Rank," "Your Vocational Interests," and "What Else Interests You?"

In a different type of book, Mark Morris provides information on *Career Opportunities* (Progress Press, Washington, D.C.). Nearly one hundred vocations are described, such facts as duties, qualification, opportunities and salaries, and training opportunities being discussed. In addition to the common occupations, the listing ranges over some uncommon specialties, such as the offset pressman, the theater manager, the poultry farmer, the plant pathologist, and the clergy of several faiths.

LEE J. CRONBACH

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEE J. CRONBACH, assistant professor of education at the University of Chicago. WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago, discusses the responsibilities of superintendents of city schools for the direction of instruction within their school systems. CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG, assistant professor of English at Brooklyn College of the City of New York, discusses the problem of racial intolerance and means of combating it through education. JOHN M. EKLUND, appraiser in the Veterans Administration Guidance Center, Opportunity School in Denver, Colorado, describes a guidance program which is adjusted to the needs of the junior high school pupil. STEPHEN ROMINE, assistant high-school visitor at the University of Colorado, presents the results of a study of the teaching combinations found in accredited public high schools in Colorado. H. BOODISH, chairman of the social-studies department at Dobbins Vocational School in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, points out the folly of the pessimistic attitude of judging the future entirely by

the past and maintains that, unless this practice is abandoned, there can be little hope for social improvement and especially for a world without wars. A list of selected references on the administration of secondary education is supplied by GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education and executive officer of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation at Teachers College, Columbia University, and GEORGE M. SHARP, assistant in education at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Reviewers of books EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English at Lake View High School in Chicago, Illinois. L. R. McDONALD, principal of the Woodruff Senior High School in Peoria, Illinois. E. J. WOLLMAN, formerly teacher of mathematics and science in the high school at Letcher, South Dakota, now a graduate student at the University of Chicago. C. H. SCHUTTER, teacher of mathematics in Steinmetz High School in Chicago, Illinois, and of social studies in the night classes of Austin High School, Chicago, Illinois.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT FOR THE DIRECTION OF INSTRUCTION

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

University of Chicago

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ANALYSIS of the duties and responsibilities approved by boards of education for city superintendents of schools at the time the office of superintendent was established shows very definitely that what the boards desired in these new appointees was leadership in dealing with the problems of instruction. That the boards did not use the term "leadership" then as it is used today is revealed by the restrictions immediately imposed on the powers of the new superintendents. Only three boards of education out of the first twenty-six to establish the office of superintendent gave the new official the power to act as an executive officer of the board. Twenty-two of the boards, or 84 per cent, adopted regulations specifying that the powers of the superintendent were limited either to acting under the direction of the board or to serving as adviser to the board.¹

EARLY RESPONSIBILITIES

The reports of annual visiting committees which were selected to inspect the schools in the early New England

¹ Thomas McDowell Gilland, *The Origin and Development of the Power and Duties of the City-School Superintendent*, pp. 39-60. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935.

cities reveal much criticism of the policies of the boards with respect to the selection of teachers. This responsibility increased in difficulty as the cities grew in size. Despite the difficulty, the boards were not willing to delegate to their greatly needed superintendents any considerable authority in the performance of this highly important duty. In only two of the twenty-six cities indicated, were the boards willing to intrust to their superintendents the sole responsibility for the examination of applicants for teaching positions. In eleven cities he was permitted to assist in examining the applicants. In one city he was privileged to keep a register of the persons who made application for teaching positions and to send the registrants a notice of the time and place of the examination. Another city allowed him to serve as an ex officio member of the examining committee. In the remaining cities of the group he was expected to assist the board in conducting the examination of the applicants for teaching positions. Obviously, the boards needed the assistance of a professional officer who knew more than they about the fitness of teachers; yet they were loath to surrender to him the responsi-

bility for determining the eligibility of teachers for appointment.

However, in the administration of the teaching staff selected, the superintendent was endowed with somewhat greater power. In eight of the cities he was given restricted authority in the filling of temporary vacancies. In nine cities he was expected to report incompetent teachers to the board for dismissal, but there is nothing in the board regulations to indicate that the members either desired or required reports on competent teachers. Apparently, the only incentive which the boards used to encourage teachers to improve was instilling in them fear of a written report to be made by the superintendent if he considered them incompetent.

In the board regulations of thirteen of the cities, the superintendents were enjoined to hold teachers' meetings for the improvement of classroom instruction. Evidently the method he was expected to use was that of telling the teachers what to do and how to do it. Four cities went even further by specifying that the superintendent should establish and conduct a normal class or school for the teachers. In the area of instruction, board members generally recognized their own limitations for leadership and were willing to pass the responsibility to the superintendent. They were even specific in enumerating the duties which they expected him to perform. Twenty-five of the twenty-six cities required that he supervise instruction; twenty-two, that he visit the schools; sixteen, that he aid the teachers who were experiencing

difficulties with discipline; thirteen, that he require the course of study to be followed; twelve, that he regulate the classification of the pupils; eight, that he assist the board in the selection of textbooks; and three, that he provide books for indigent children.

The details which have been presented regarding the superintendent's responsibility for the direction of instruction at the time the office of superintendent was established in the first twenty-six cities of the United States to create this position, constitute the foundation or base on which the American school superintendent has built his professional career. My purpose in elaborating the foundation has been to provide a vantage point from which the progress which has been made can be viewed. It is important that we look backward in order to see how far the superintendent has advanced in carrying on the functions which made the establishment of his office possible. It is also important that we look forward for a glimpse of the progress yet to be made.

It is not my intention in this discussion to give a historical review of the progress made in the direction of instruction since the emergence of the school superintendent in city school systems. However, it is essential that consideration be given to certain landmarks which stand out in the headway made in the improvement of instruction by leaders in the field of educational administration. Consideration might be given to the great administrators whose labors have advanced the fron-

tiers of instruction during the decades in which they served the schools. The contributions of these leaders to instruction would, no doubt, be known to most readers. The improvements in instruction resulting from the work of William T. Harris in St. Louis; from that of Francis W. Parker in Quincy, Massachusetts; from that of Edward P. Seaver in Boston; from that of William H. Maxwell in New York; and from that of Ella Flagg Young in Chicago, to mention only a few, are so well known that the mere mention of their names suggests at once the advancement made during the periods in which these superintendents exercised leadership.

Inasmuch as the development of the school principal and other line and staff officers as leaders in instruction is a result of the vision and ingenuity of the superintendent, this paper is restricted chiefly to the consideration of the function of the superintendent as a director of instruction. The first extensive appraisal of this function of the superintendent is the status study² of the Department of Superintendence published in 1923. In this study, which involved questionnaire returns from 1,078 city superintendents, it was found that considerable progress had been made in the superintendent's responsibilities for instruction since the establishment of the office of superintendent in city

school systems of the United States between 1839 and 1875.

Whereas the superintendent had virtually no authority for the appointment of teachers and principals in the period from 1839 to 1875, in 1923 it was found that 83.8 per cent of the 1,078 superintendents who replied to the stocktaking questionnaire were privileged to initiate the appointment of teachers and 78.3 per cent to initiate the appointment of principals. This initiative was exercised in accordance with state law by approximately one-sixth of the superintendents reporting and according to board rules and regulations by one-fourth. The remaining superintendents who signified that they possessed and used such initiative (approximately two-fifths of the entire group) did so because it was commonly recognized by them and by their boards of education as the responsibility of the school executive.

The appraisal data reveal that, in the exercise of the right of initiative with respect to the transfer of teachers, the boards of education were somewhat inclined to restrict their superintendents. Even so, 67 per cent of the superintendents stated that they exercised this right, 5.4 per cent by law, 24.1 per cent by school-board regulation, and 37.6 by general understanding. The boards were more generous in granting the power of initiative to their superintendents in the dismissal of teachers. Of the superintendents reporting, 76.4 per cent indicated that they were both expected and allowed to initiate dismissal proceedings, 10 per cent by law, 23 per

² *The Status of the Superintendent*. First Year-book of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1923.

cent by board rule, and 43.4 per cent by general consent.

In the exercise of initiative in the direction and administration of instruction, it was reported that 61 per cent of the 1,078 superintendents were privileged to initiate measures designed to improve classroom instruction, 69 per cent possessed such power in regard to the curriculum, and 68 per cent in regard to textbooks and instructional supplies. Approximately 10 per cent of the superintendents possessed this power because of state legislation, about 20 per cent because of school-board enactments, and around 40 per cent through common consent.

EARLY EXECUTIVE POWERS

However, the power to execute in the same areas in which the power to initiate was reported was generally considerably less. The average percentage of superintendents who possessed power to execute was 42.2. In the exercise of the power of approval, the average percentage, only 4.1, was insignificant.

The data just presented show that, during the fifty-year period following the establishment of the office of superintendent, superintendents were exercising initiative in the direction and administration of instruction in 71.6 per cent of 1,078 cities; the power to execute in the same area in 42.2 per cent of these cities; and the power to approve in only 4.1 per cent of these cities. The findings show that the responsibilities enjoyed in considerably over half of the school systems were

acquired through general understanding between the superintendent and his board rather than through state law and school-board regulations. This is as it should be, for the board is left free to enact specific rules for the government of the superintendent, if it should be found that he is unable efficiently to use authority commensurate with the responsibility implied in a general understanding.

A second stocktaking of the professional progress of the city school superintendent was made and reported for 1,478 cities in the Eleventh Yearbook³ of the Department of Superintendence. This appraisal revealed a remarkable increase in the percentage of superintendents reporting the right to initiate the appointment of teachers and principals; the transfer and dismissal of teachers, principals, and other instructional employees; the determination of the subjects of the curriculum and the content of the subjects; the selection of textbooks and instructional supplies; and the direction and supervision of classroom instruction. The percentage of superintendents reporting that they possessed the power of initiative for these functions averaged 86.3 in 1933, or 14.7 more than in 1923. In the power to execute the same functions, the average percentage in 1933 was 74.8, or 32.6 more than in 1923. In the power to approve these functions, the average percentage was only 17.5. However,

³ *Educational Leadership: Progress and Possibilities*, pp. 135-140. Eleventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence. Washington: Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, 1933.

this percentage was 13.4 per cent greater than in 1923.

Superintendents have made still further gains in their power to initiate, execute, and approve measures in the field of instruction since 1933. Today the superintendent is usually accepted by boards of education as their professional adviser and leader in all matters pertaining to the direction and administration of instruction. This does not mean that boards of education generally consider the superintendent highly competent as an instructional leader. In fact, his status as a business manager, public-relations director, financier, and school executive may be considered superior to his status as a director of instruction. However, it does mean that boards of education commonly look to the superintendent for leadership in instruction regardless of his specialized abilities in the field. Indeed it is generally considered better administration for the modern superintendent with large responsibilities to utilize the services of experts, who can provide the special leadership in instruction needed by his staff, than to follow the practices of even the ablest of the earlier superintendents, who worked almost solely on instructional problems.

During the first fifty years (1840-90) of the American city school superintendency, the man who occupied the position of superintendent in a city school system was expected to perform the functions of an educational prophet. He was supposed to know the solution for all the local problems in the

field of instruction. He would have been regarded as unfit for his position if he could not make a curriculum—subject, of course, to board approval—grade the materials of instruction, prescribe the correct methods of teaching, demonstrate for the teachers how the teaching should be done, and supervise the efforts of the teachers to put his ideas into practice.

At the time, all this may not have been so bad as it now appears. Teaching staffs in the early decades of the city superintendency generally were poorly trained. Many teachers had not advanced beyond elementary school in their preparation for teaching, and the large majority had probably never darkened the doors of teacher-training institutions. Hence the superintendent was employed, not only to serve as a professional adviser for his board, but also to set up and to carry on a program of in-service training for teachers.

The task of providing professional leadership was made more difficult by legal prescriptions, school-board regulations, and the influence of inferior textbooks, which were often the only source of instructional materials. However, the general advancement of the teaching profession to its present status may be accounted for in no small part by the contributions to instruction made by the city school superintendents.

In the larger cities, as the work of the schools increased in complexity, assistants were appointed to aid the superintendent in the performance of his instructional duties. The appointment of such assistants did not mean that the

superintendent was to be relieved of his responsibilities for the direction of instruction. The implication is clear that the assistants were provided to prevent the neglect of instructional duties, which multiplied in number as the school systems increased in size. There is no indication that boards of education in the rapidly growing cities considered that the instructional responsibilities of the superintendent would be decreased by the appointment of assistants. He was required to justify his assistants by the uses he made of their services.

In the smaller school systems the superintendent was expected to essay the role of leadership in the improvement of instruction. Little change in this role has occurred through the years, although the broadening interests of superintendents have frequently caused them to neglect instructional responsibilities in order to excel in other aspects of administration.

Instructional leadership, in both large and small school systems, has manifested itself in different ways as educational conditions have undergone change. Today no superintendent would be expected to write an entire course of study, as was frequently done by superintendents in the first fifty or sixty years of the city superintendency. In fact, it would not now be considered efficient administration for a superintendent to do so, even if he could. There are other types of instructional services of greater worth to the schools under his care, which a superintendent can render.

LEADERSHIP

As the reputed intellectual leader of his staff, the superintendent must be able to clarify the views of his staff members regarding the general aims of education and the specific aims of each curriculum field. Inability of the superintendent to accomplish this task promotes mental lethargy on the part of his staff members and encourages instructional practices of a low level. Hence the superintendent must accept this responsibility if significant contributions are to be made toward instructional improvement in local systems.

Since the superintendent is generally regarded by the local public as its educational statesman, he must also assume responsibility for enlightening the public regarding the functions of education and the effectiveness of instruction in the local schools. This responsibility requires that he accept the role of interpreter of education in its larger, as well as in its local, aspects. He must justify the program of education in use in the local schools and defend it through comparison and contrast with the programs of earlier periods now idealized by some critics of present-day schools. He will be expected to evaluate the so-called "fads and frills," and the "isms" of the various educational "cults" and to assure supporters, whose children are in the schools, that the local program of studies fully and properly prepares their children for fruitful living in ordered society. Ambiguity or superficiality of exposition on his part will inevitably lead the public to lose confidence in the integrity of his

leadership and in the efficiency of his program. The support of education in the local community will be conditioned very largely by the ability of the superintendent to create a favorable public opinion regarding the soundness of his educational views.

The plight of the superintendent as an interpreter of instruction to the members of his staff becomes apparent if his conception is characterized by vagueness and lack of understanding. Since the clarification of the views of his staff members concerning instruction is a function of supervision, the superintendent rises or falls as an educational leader in the estimation of his staff on the basis of his contribution as an educational interpreter.

Because the superintendent, due to sheer lack of physical powers, is forced to delegate many of his duties to assistants, it is only natural that he will delegate those that he is least qualified to perform, among which, all too frequently, will be his responsibility for the direction of instruction. While much of the work for improving instruction can and should be delegated to staff members, the superintendent must be the vitalizing influence which sets the staff forces in motion. Ineffective exercise of this influence is considered by many to be the greatest weakness of the present-day superintendent.

In order to co-ordinate the efforts to improve instruction in the schools of a city, the superintendent is compelled to set up an organization which will enlist the support and participation of all

members of his staff. Not all superintendents, however, will attempt to function in this manner. Some superintendents may hold that worth-while results cannot be obtained through the general participation of all teachers; others, on the contrary, will insist that the best way to improve instruction is through the enlistment of the intelligent and enthusiastic participation of the classroom teachers in the production of instructional materials.

APPRAISAL OF INSTRUCTION

Whether the superintendent of a city school system personally contributes to the improvement of instruction or not, he will be held responsible for the status of learning and teaching in the schools over which he has charge. This responsibility impels him to take stock of instruction from time to time, as a professional self-defense measure, if for no other reason. He may ask his board for a budget appropriation that will enable him to secure the assistance of specialists from outside the system in evaluating the work of his schools and in developing a program of improvement. He may prefer to request the assistance of educational consultants from outside his school system to make the appraisal, or he may choose to organize the members of his staff who have supervisory responsibilities to undertake the appraisal as a self-survey project in supervision.

Since the instructional program necessarily determines, to a considerable extent, the character and the use of the school plant, the kind and amount of

educational supplies and equipment, the nature of the supervisory program, and, to a certain extent, the need for pupil guidance, it is clear that continuous appraisal of instruction is essential to successful administration by the superintendent. Without the knowledge which such an appraisal can provide, it is difficult to comprehend how a superintendent can chart a course of progress for a system of schools or how he can presume to direct a corps of professional workers.

The responsibilities of the city school superintendent for the direction and administration of instruction may vary considerably with the size of the system. In the smaller cities he must participate actively in all the measures designed to improve both learning and teaching in the schools under his charge. In the middle-sized and larger cities he may remain somewhat aloof from instructional activities, assuming

the role of the educational statesman—a leader in the formulation of policies, the execution of which he intrusts to intermediary line assistants and to staff officers. In either case, the superintendent will be evaluated by the instructional program of his schools.

In recent years, all too many superintendents have tended to dissociate themselves from instruction and to give most of their attention to office activities and to business management. If this tendency should become the trend, one might well question whether the zenith of the superintendent's prestige as a professional worker has not been reached and his status as director of instruction has entered upon its decline. It should be clear to anyone who is conversant with public education that the city superintendent must either stand out as the champion of instruction or forfeit his status as an educational leader.

HUMAN ASPECTS OF THE RACE PROBLEM

CHARLES I. GLICKSBERG

Brooklyn College of the City of New York

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THERE is, of course, no shadow of truth in the racial stereotypes that have traditionally become a part of the Negro character, yet they persist and are perpetuated even within the walls of the schools that are supposed to dedicate themselves to the search for truth and to educate youth for democracy. These emotional predispositions seem to defy all efforts at educational "decontamination." Although science offers no justification for such discriminatory attitudes, the teachings of science have thus far proved powerless in neutralizing the expression of racial animus; for stereotypes are achieved by leading people to think in blanket terms. By putting blinkers over their eyes, people prevent themselves from looking at the facts objectively. Negroes are convicted on the basis of ignorance rather than documented knowledge.

How then eliminate these vicious stereotypes once they have sunk into the swampy soil of the unconscious? Planted in childhood, when the mind is highly impressionable, these stereotypes spread their roots vigorously in all directions. From then on, they are strengthened by all kinds of "convincing" evidence. So pervasive is the conditioning which a given culture imposes on the individual that practical-

ly every one of us entertains a number of ugly stereotypes of this character.

RACIAL STEREOTYPES

If the schools are to play a constructive role in attacking racial prejudice at its source, they must realistically appraise the difficulties and obstacles that face them, as well as the nature of the moral responsibility imposed on them as the transmitters of the democratic ideal. In that way they will be restrained from undertaking impossible tasks, and teachers interested in solving this problem will not suffer the blight of disillusionment. Though racial prejudice cannot be legislated out of existence, its overt expression can be effectually inhibited.

How shall all this be achieved? What concrete methods shall be pursued? What tested teaching methods shall be employed? Teachers have been surfeited on a diet of generalities and moral imperatives. The correlation between theory and practice has been disappointingly small. In some schools, students are earnestly lectured on the evil of racial intolerance; forums are held in which discrimination is attacked and the inspiring message of the American Creed is eloquently set forth; teachers organize committees to combat the incidence of

racial prejudice in the schools. Such efforts are, to be sure, much to be preferred to indifference or acquiescence in the ethics of "Jim Crowism," and in the long run they probably help to bring about reforms. From a practical and immediate point of view, however, they seem to accomplish little of substantial value; for students and teachers are often guilty of a dual system of conduct. When a problem is discussed in the abstract, people appear to agree; but, when the abstractions are brought down to earth, the seemingly irreconcilable differences that divide groups are seen.

No educational problem at present generates more psychic tension and heat than does the race problem. The schools are expected to uphold the finest ideals of American democracy, and the teachers are expected to be models of tolerance and understanding. Teachers, however, are human. They are not abstract and impeccable personifications of democratic ideals in action. They are not only teachers but also men and women with an accumulation of past experiences.

Instead of simplifying the problem and making it seem easy of solution, educators would do well to stress its formidable complexity. Why is consciousness of color made the basis for an intricate and well-nigh incredible system of caste discrimination? Questions of this type are asked, and the presumption is that there must be a straightforward and satisfying answer if only we search for it long enough and hard enough. The an-

swer, of course, is not so easily forthcoming.

Those who insist that the race problem is insoluble take their stand on instinct, on what is "natural." Their strategy turns out, on examination, to be semantically corrupt. What, after all, is "natural"? One is not born with an ineradicable aversion for people of a different "racial" group. There is no such thing as racial instinct. In the South, where racial prejudice is most rampant, the relationship between white and colored people is, on levels outside the caste bounds, cordial and even affectionate. If the Negro "keeps his place," he is treated with some degree of consideration. The Southerner will refuse to eat at the same table with a Negro, but he has no objection to having his food prepared and served by Negroes.

Unfortunately the subject of race is steeped and saturated in the vocabulary of prejudice. These prejudices are so ingrained a part of language that they shape our frame of reference and condition our conclusions. We think and talk in terms of race; we create spurious entities and treat them as if they were real. We have no other negotiable symbols to convey our meaning. Even social scientists are compelled to use these misleading linguistic labels, since there are no others available. Consequently many discussions of the subject go astray because of false-to-fact language.

It might help if we used algebraic symbols to designate so-called "racial groups." X would represent the whites

and Y, the colored people, and exponents would indicate important qualifying differences where these existed. The method of "indexing," as the semanticists recommend, might eventually help to break down the habit of indulging in dogmatic generalizations. Useful as such semantic purity and precision would be, employing it at present is difficult and perhaps unwise. Only specialists would bother to read reports couched in such technical jargon. The aim of the race reformer is to reach the masses, who are the seed-bearers of racial prejudice. Moreover, writing on race prejudice cannot afford to be neutral and dispassionate in tone, stripped of all coefficients of feeling. The subject is invested with a high potential of passion, unavoidably so. By all means, let us have scientific anthropological and sociological studies, but writing designed for laymen must be phrased in language that they can understand, language that calls forth an emotional response, language that will attack the vulnerable point in their armor of rationality.

Moreover, teachers must be led to recognize the extent to which race prejudice is a *personal* matter, as well as a disease of society, and how strongly protected against reason and proof these prejudices are. For example, how many prejudiced people are willing to admit that their attitudes are prejudiced, and under these circumstances, how are teachers and students to be made aware of their own "abnormality" in these matters? What is more,

once they become acutely conscious of their "pathological" condition—none-theless "pathological" because it is a collective phenomenon—how are they to be filled with the desire to get well? The cure must be motivated, not by the impulse of survival alone, but by a moral effort of the will—it must be a self-cure. The understanding of the nature of the disease depends on a rigorous process of self-education as well as communally guided education. It is only the exceptionally candid and courageous personality that will fight the enemy within, and such persons are aware that the process of self-cure is never complete.

The battle against racial prejudice can make better headway if it is supplemented by public or socialized methods of guidance and control. One method that has not yet been tried on a wide scale is the clinical case-history method. The collection of objective case studies would tend to offset the temptation to indulge in easy generalizations, and the analysis of such studies would do much to remove race prejudice from the realm of abstractions and "snap" judgments. The attempt to record and interpret factual incidents of racial conflict that take place within the school and in the community would help, not only to humanize the problem, but also to place it within a more objective setting. However, the case history method cannot be expected to succeed unless it secures the co-operation of the administrative authorities and the teaching body.

CASE HISTORIES

The following significant case histories must remain incomplete because the writer was not in a position to gather all the relevant facts.

Richard Wright's novel *Native Son* was read by some Negro students in a class. Though they approved strongly of the author's militancy on the race issue, one girl declared she hated Richard Wright.

"Why so?" asked the teacher.

"Because he is a traitor to his people. He married a white woman," the girl said, with deep scorn in her voice.

Another colored girl spoke up, "I can't explain it, but I wouldn't marry a white man on any account. Just wouldn't—that's all."

The white students sat and listened.

Negro students are extremely sensitive on the question of color and the objectionable character of certain racial epithets. One class had been reading *Emperor Jones*. A colored lad played the principal part intelligently and with gusto. He seemed to show no trace of color consciousness and no feeling of self-consciousness.

In another class, however, two colored girls intensely resented the repeated use of the term "nigger" in the play and bitterly complained about this indignity to the chairman of the English department. In deference to their wounded sensibilities, the reading of the play was stopped. Was this a wise or a mistaken move? Would it have been better if the teacher had frankly enlightened the students about the matter? The problem of race con-

sciousness in language should have been discussed in private. After all, there are people in real life, ignorant and grossly prejudiced white men, who frequently use such terms of disparagement. Smithers is just such a type. Must such terms in fiction or drama be henceforth strictly taboo, not to be printed under any circumstances whatsoever? If that is the case, then we have "race" censorship, and artistic integrity is destroyed.

There is another aspect of this problem that should prove educationally valuable. When are certain expressions offensive? In what contexts? Is the author's underlying purpose not to be considered? Is the writer pouring contempt on the Negro people or is he giving an honest portrayal of character? A word is but a symbol. To determine whether or not it is objectionable, the reader must first decide how the expression is used.

There is no end to such humanly significant anecdotes. They happen every day in schools that have mixed student populations. In one school a fight had started in the gymnasium. A Negro lad had struck a white boy and blackened his eye. The physical-education teacher called all the colored boys together and gave them a severe lecture. He was their friend, he assured them, and he wanted to speak with brutal frankness. Let them bear in mind that the character of the colored people is generally judged by its worst examples. If a Negro commits a crime, the whites immediately say, "That's just like the niggers. They're

all criminals at heart." If a Negro boy is a roughneck and tries to beat up other students, trust white parents to say, "I can't send my child to a school with common niggers." Such a reputation sticks like pitch. Why should the reputation of the Negro people in this community be spoiled by the actions of a few?

Are direct appeals couched in this manner effective? Are they the best method of handling interracial conflicts or quarrels that occur between white and colored students? What do the colored boys think of such treatment? What are their inner reactions to such "plain talk"? Observe that no effort was made to investigate the cause of the quarrel and to hold the chief "culprits" responsible. The white boy, simply because he was beaten up, was considered "innocent." No one called the white students together for a "curtain lecture." Would the Negro students look upon this as an instance of educational "Jim Crowism"?

Occasionally some students decide to practice the holdup game as a means of making easy money. In one school two or three colored lads would surround a white boy and demand his money. If he refused to pay "protection" money, they would threaten to beat him up. In one case they had beaten up a white boy who refused to give way. He fought back, but he was a sorry sight when the Negro "toughs" got through with him.

The principal of the school decided that some kind of drastic disciplinary action was essential. He knew this sort

of thing must be stopped at once. At first it was planned to call all Negro students together and acquaint them with the facts and lay down the law. They were to be given a stern warning that such criminal misdeeds would not be countenanced. If necessary, the police would be informed and the culprits sentenced to jail. A few teachers, however, pointed out that such disciplinary measures might have disastrous results. Was it not tantamount to an official confirmation of the belief that only the Negro students were guilty—that this was a racial offense? All colored students were being judged guilty because of the misdeeds of a few. Because three colored lads robbed other boys of their money, all Negro students were condemned as equally guilty. Only the earnest opposition of a few teachers dissuaded the authorities from pursuing this injudicious policy. The guilty ones must be apprehended and punished, regardless of their color. Crime was not a monopoly of Negro youth. Juvenile delinquency was not confined to Negro students. Justice should not be "racialized."

In one New York high school a number of colored students were making a regular practice of beating up white girls and boys. The police were informed, detectives were put on the job, and the offenders brought up on charges. Some of the white girls who were the victims of these attacks decided to transfer to another school. One teacher at the school argued that these attacks were prompted by the desire of the colored students to prove

to the world that they were the equal of the whites. He maintained that this attitude was engendered by the ideas some "liberal" teachers were inculcating in their students: the idea of social equality, the ideal of *fighting* staunchly for their "rights." He asserted that this idea of equality was pure "bunk" and that white people who advocated it were hypocrites. He felt that the only way to test their sincerity was to ask them if they would marry a Negro or have their children marry Negroes or if they would associate with Negroes socially or would reside in a Negro residential neighborhood.

Another teacher chimed in, "If those who preach equality actually practiced it, would they make a point of advertising their tolerance? Why make a special issue of it? Isn't it virtually impossible to regard the Negro as an equal until we treat him as we would any other man?"

"True enough," broke in another teacher, "but does that mean we should not give Negroes a fair break right now? I can't see it. If you don't push them into the gutter and discriminate against them, you won't make criminals of so many of them."

It is ironic that the race war should be coming to a head in the schools, of all places. Gang wars frequently break out. In schools where the Negro children outnumber the white pupils, life is rendered miserable for the white minority—not only miserable but dangerous. These attacks do not consist of bullying threats capped by a

few blows. Plenty of vicious blows are directed indiscriminately to all parts of the body. No mercy is shown. This is a war of hate. It does not matter that the victim is innocent; he is white and therefore *ipso facto* guilty. He is the sacrificial symbol, the scapegoat for all those whites who terrorize over them. When teachers remonstrate with them on their outrageous conduct, they reply: "You have no conception of what *we* have to suffer daily, the attacks *we* endure. If we walk on Riverside Drive, gangs of white boys pounce on us and beat us up. Read what the Harlem newspapers print about the way Negroes are treated. You won't see anything about such things in the white newspapers."

In short, this is a miniature race war, black against white. It is the only way these colored youngsters know of venting their racial grievance. If teachers plead with them that this is taking the law into their own hands, they have a ready answer. What happens if any Negro family dares to move into a white neighborhood? Windows are broken, the house is set on fire, and the lives of the colored tenants are endangered. Residential segregation is enforced by lawlessness. What happens to Negroes in the South? They are "Jim Crowed," oppressed, exploited, lynched. Who should be the first to cast a stone? These Negro youths are simply repaying the whites in their own coin. The argument that their victim is usually innocent fails to impress them. Do the whites stop to inquire whether the

Negroes whom they segregate and terrorize are innocent? They are guilty because their color is black. For the same reason, every white boy is a hereditary enemy.

One day while the problem of hoodlums was being discussed in class, a girl arose and said, "There's going to be a revolution when this war is over. There will be a second civil war. Blood will flow in the streets."

"Why, what do you mean?" gasped the astonished teacher.

"Well, our boys are fighting for democracy. When they come back home, they will want to enjoy the fruits of democracy. They are not going to let themselves be done out of jobs and forced into ghetto areas and denied their rights as first-class citizens. No, sir! They're going to fight back, and they've learned how to fight!"

This scattered, anecdotal record of racial conflict in the schools but scratches the surface of the underlying problem. Surely the time will come when school administrators will not be interested solely in "preserving the peace." As if a policy of avoidance or calling the police or punishing "the offenders" can be said to constitute a solution! Thus we are but treating the symptoms and neglecting the fundamental cause of the disease, the cancer in the heart of society.

A more objective and understanding approach would seek to get to the root of the problem. What are the "classic" symptoms of racial conflict? Who are the students chronically involved? Why do gang fights and hold-ups take place? Is this a matter for the

police or for sociopsychiatric investigation or for constructive community action? Administrators are shirking their responsibility and taking what seems, from a short-range view, the easy way out when they seek to preserve peace at all costs. Each school, once it has formulated its philosophy of education and its attitude toward the race problem, must devise a long-range policy that is constructive and enlightened. The method of making case studies of race conflict might help matters considerably by giving the faculty increased insight into the dynamics of the conflict situation and greater understanding of the minority group, which is in our culture the traditional victim of discrimination. No attempt should be made to gloss over the seriousness of the problem. Teachers cannot, like Pilate, wash their hands of this matter. They must see it through.

COMBATING RACIAL PREJUDICE

What the case-study method stresses primarily, as contrasted with the more intellectualistic approach, is that racial prejudices are as personal and private a part of us as are our skin and our feelings. These prejudices are unassailable precisely because they are *ours*. They belong to our ego; they are firmly lodged in our unconscious; they spring from our emotionally conditioned past. How, then, combat them? By showing how these prejudices arise and what consequences they have in terms of behavior. By subjecting to the test of factual analysis each stereotyped racial belief and

its carry-over into behavior. If handled properly, a class study of the prejudices that manifest themselves not only in the community at large but within the school itself might produce illuminating and valuable results. Why are Negroes disliked? What experiences have students or adult members of the community had which led them to adopt these attitudes? As a rule, it will be found that the person interviewed has had some personal experience in the past—or knows of someone who did—which affected his attitude. On the basis of this one experience, he generalized, assuming that all members of the racial group acted in the same way.

One phase of the documentary or fact-finding method, which has been tried out in eleven high schools in New York City and Westchester County, is described in Spencer Brown's *They See for Themselves*.¹ In these intercultural projects the students were encouraged to select their own problems for investigation. Not what the teacher dictated or the textbook prescribed, but what the students themselves discovered, became the object of research. Out of their personal experiences, out of interviews with people in the community, they derived firsthand material, which was then written up in the form of documentary plays and produced. The problems taken up in these plays were close to the students' lives. Such projects, by creating socially constructive opportunities for face-to-face discus-

sion and exchange of ideas and experiences, help to release tension and eradicate prejudices.

The case-study method, by humanizing the race problem, may, if it is used in conjunction with other fruitful and tested methods of attacking the problem of race prejudice, lead people to re-examine their evaluation of reality. The difficulty of changing attitudes, however, inheres in a moral as well as a factual issue. How change a person's evaluation of what is right and wrong, good and bad? What objective standards can be employed? There is one strategy which may prove effective. Since the values that people cherish are supposed to be objectively grounded and logical, since each person tries as far as possible to wear the mask of sanity and rely on the testimony of reason, his degree of self-deception can be partially exposed. It can be shown that his "scientific" opinions are a tangled skein of illogicality, that he is "rationalizing" his motives for behaving in a given way.

The hope for intercultural education, for the constructive shaping of race attitudes, lies in bringing valuations into the open and subjecting them to public discussion and criticism. Thus, overlooked elements in the situation are brought into the foreground of attention. As the case studies are analyzed and discussed, the valuations tend to become more empirical and more inclusive in scope. When inconsistencies are thus brought to light, changed attitudes may result. The barrier is ignorance.

¹ Spencer Brown, *They See for Themselves*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1945.

GUIDING THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPIL

JOHN M. EKLUND
Opportunity School, Denver, Colorado

*

THE junior high school has long been accepted as the transition period in the child's school career. We expect, in this three-year period, to accept from the elementary school a child naïve and closely supervised, introduce him to a different curriculum pattern, allow him much more freedom of action and choice, and at the end of the three-year period present him to the senior high school as a well-integrated adolescent equipped to grapple with a world rapidly becoming more and more competitive. This is, indeed, a large order; for any pathway leading from childhood to adolescence is not only important but crucial.

The pupil at this school level is undergoing swift changes. Teachers and counselors are aware of the complexities of growth in children between the ages of ten to sixteen, for they are evident and persistent. All too often, however, the press of having too many pupils and the diverse demands made on the time of the teachers have prevented them from giving their pupils the complete and individual analysis that is needed. It has been, and is, too easy to accept the pupil as a mere member of a group. Much of the time good counseling has been swallowed

up in the demands of the masses. The blame cannot be laid entirely upon the teachers; yet good guidance cannot live in the rarefied atmosphere of the detached and impersonal approach.

The true functions of the teacher as a counselor in the junior high school are chiefly twofold. In the first place, he represents the best objective viewpoint of a mature outlook on life. Hitherto, the child's parents have watched and guided him from a possessive and personal approach, and much of the time have arbitrarily informed him of what he can or cannot do. The counselor now attempts to enlighten him from a different angle on both correct and social behavior—behavior and conduct for the sake of being, and of becoming accepted as, a worthy member of his social world. The counselor tries consistently to make the better levels of living the more desirable ones.

In the second place, the teacher, as counselor, is one of the major directive forces in the child's life. Largely unknown to the child, the teacher has, from the first moment of contact, thought of the child in terms of the direction in which he is going and of the possibilities of redirecting him. The teacher is forced to take the child

from where he is, but the beauty of education is that directing the child is limited only by the child's own capacity and ability, plus the influence of other directive powers playing upon him.

With this twofold function of the counselor in mind, a handy rule-of-thumb principle that is fundamental in the process of guiding children at any level becomes evident: the teacher can influence and guide a child only to the degree that he has both obtained full and complete understanding of that child and has succeeded in gaining the child's confidence. The process of guidance rests therein and is achieved not by accident or by position but by planned continuity of adult-youth relationship. We will be concerned here chiefly with a specific device (an analysis sheet) that may be followed in learning to know the child fully and completely during each step of his three-year experience in the junior high school.

ORIENTATION TO A NEW WORLD

The initial step in the guidance process comes when the child for the first time leaves the closely watched activity of the elementary school and becomes a member of a much larger and diversified community, the junior high school. There are three distinct phases to the pupil's orientation: (1) The child must make an adjustment to the school. A sense of belonging and security on his part is representative of good adjustment. (2) He must make a favorable adjustment to his

teacher or teachers. A sense of respect and confidence on the part of the pupil is representative of good adjustment. (3) He must make an adjustment to a much larger number of children, many of them strangers of different races or from different social and economic levels. Good adjustment in the pupil-to-pupil relationship is indicated by the pupil's being accepted by members of his own group.

If the child were left to shift for himself in this rather intricate process of becoming a functioning member of a new society, his chances would be only fair. If a counselor, knowing his capacities and abilities, as well as his limitations and peculiarities, is beside him, his chances of making a favorable adjustment are greatly enhanced.

What, then, must the counselor know about the child at the first level? The following outline is an analysis sheet specifying some of the more pertinent factors concerning the teacher's knowledge of the child. These facts of personal data may be gathered in several ways: through the cumulative record, through a questionnaire devised by the pupils themselves as a group, through direct questioning, and through the process of learning to know the pupil in day-to-day relationship.

COUNSELING ANALYSIS SHEET

I. First Year

A. School history

1. What schools has the pupil attended?
2. What has his attendance record been?

3. Does his record show excessive tardiness?
 4. Is the child a truant problem?
 5. Is the child over-age or under-age for his grade level?
 6. Has he been skipped or retarded?
 7. Have grade changes been made because of age or disability?
 8. Has the child showed any marked difficulties in any area of the school program?
 9. Has he shown definite dislikes for any areas?
- B. Health history
1. Has the child suffered any long or serious illnesses?
 2. Is the child now suffering from the effects of any previous illnesses?
 3. Has the child at any time sustained a serious injury?
 4. Does he carry the effects or scars of serious injury?
 5. Has the child undergone any serious operations?
 6. Is the child now in need of surgery?
- C. Present physical condition
1. Is the child close to average in weight and height?
 2. Does the child appear normal in development?
 3. Are there organic or chronic weaknesses or defects?
 4. Does the child have any weaknesses that he favors?
- D. Home background
1. Is the neighborhood good?
 2. Is the child conscious of any deficiencies in the location of his home?
 3. Is the school far from home?
 4. Does the child walk or ride a bicycle, bus, or streetcar?
 5. Do his parents bring him?
 6. Is his home rented or owned by parents?
 7. Is it a single-unit dwelling? Double? Apartment?
 8. Is his home attractive? Is he proud of his home?
 9. What are the child's relations with his parents?
 10. Does he respect them? Play with them? Confide in them?
 11. Are both father and mother in the home? Are they separated or divorced?
 12. Are they both employed?
 13. Are there brothers and sisters in the home? Are there others in the family group?
 14. Do the child's parents have a co-operative attitude toward the school?

If the counselor has an awareness of these and many other similar problems, which are the key entries into the child's own evaluation of himself, he can do much toward making the child feel secure and at home in his enlarging school world. He cannot remake the child's background or change the social and economic status, but he can help to minimize these differences as the child becomes aware of them.

ENTERING PREADOLESCENCE

Until the advent of adolescence, the junior high school pupil reacts as a child, thinks as a child, and possesses the wants of a child. Somewhere about the time the child moves into the second year of junior high school, the first glimmerings of adolescence appear. The child (if a boy) suddenly finds that his voice is not as secure as it has been. The contour of the body (in both sexes) begins its shift toward maturity. Concomitant with these physical changes, a series of inward

changes, emotional and mental, are taking place. The child, who has thought naïvely, now begins to think personally and shrewdly. The child who has felt at ease with members of the opposite sex now begins to feel self-conscious and ill at ease in mixed company. While he previously has felt family affinity largely as an emotional experience, he now begins to analyze and consider his family objectively. As he exerts himself more and more as an individual, he discovers the reality of a multitude of pressures from home, from school, from church, and from the social and economic levels in which he lives. His acceptance of, and adjustment to, these pressures represent the social sculpturing that can give him maturity in judgment and action.

The repercussions of this first critical approach to his new world are reflected in the child's behavior. For the first time, he either becomes consciously proud of his background, his tradition, and his home, or he puts himself on the defensive side of the social scale.

The whole range of the pupil's interests may suddenly begin to shift. A child who previously has been quiet and contained may become boisterous and aggressive. While his interests may have been largely personal, they may become dominantly social. The lesson for the counselor at this level is: learning to know the preadolescent well in no way relieves the counselor of the responsibility of learning to know him all over again as he moves

into adolescence. Thus the counselor must constantly be alert to change, at times accepting the youth at face value, but ready to make discount at any moment.

While much of the child's background, his record, his physical qualifications may still be pertinent, the counselor must remember, above all, that these years are probably the most fluid and flexible period of the child's life. The counselor who forgets this may find himself dealing with a stranger rather than a person whom he thought he knew well. Good guidance is based on information which develops into understanding on the part of the teacher, simultaneously with the pupil's growth into the security of being known and understood.

COUNSELING ANALYSIS SHEET

II. Second Year

A. First-year history

1. What of the child's attendance?
Is he usually at school? Are there valid reasons for absences?
2. Is the child punctual?
3. Is there any record of truancy?
If so, what was the apparent cause? What was done to solve the truancy problem?
4. Has the child made normal progress in all areas?
5. Do objective tests show normal increase in skill and knowledge?
6. What deviations from normal does his capacity warrant?
7. With his capacity, how far can he be expected to progress in various areas?

B. Pupil's wants and abilities

1. Does the pupil choose to do certain types of work?

2. Does he enjoy physical exercise, or does he choose less active expression?
3. How does he spend his leisure?
4. Are his interests broad (many) or narrow (few)?
5. Is he particularly adept at any skills?
6. Is he good at sports?
7. Does he learn readily? Does he take direction well?

C. Physical and mental status

1. Is the child's growth normal?
2. Are there any physical defects that have appeared in the past year?
3. Are previous defects and deficiencies still affecting him?
4. Does he take adequate care of his person? Does he have sufficient rest, food, clothing?
5. Does he keep himself clean and neat?
6. Is he maturing normally?
7. Is maturation retarded or accelerated?
8. Are his emotions stable? Does he become upset easily?
9. Is he subject to moods?
10. Does he feel himself equal to those around him?

BEGINNING OF ADOLESCENCE

Adolescence is the beginning of the long period of transition from childhood to maturity. The degree to which the child is able to exchange his childish characteristics for mature qualities, both mental and physical, is the touchstone of smooth adolescence. The counselor's job is to be aware of each factor of change as it occurs to each pupil even though many of the changes may be concealed and many of them may not be what they appear to be. Being a mature, well-integrated

personality himself is a "must" for him who would be a good counselor at this level.

When the pupil first comes under the counselor's guidance, there are a number of facts about the child that the counselor must know. He also must keep these facts in mind increasingly, as they tend to shift. If early in his relations with the pupil he becomes equipped with this mass of personal data, he can see any radical deviation from pattern as it occurs. While it may seem rather fatalistic to say that the potentialities of each pupil predicate what development shall be his, yet this statement is correct. The counselor's job, therefore, is to do the best he can with whatever potentialities are present and to be alive to any great changes in the child's personality. The truth remains that a great deal cannot be made out of very little, but, nevertheless, each child deserves to be assisted to achieve the best that is in him.

There are three areas of the child's life that are especially fruitful for one who wishes to understand the child's shift into maturity. The importance of personal data has already been emphasized, but each of the problems of background, of capacity, and of aptitude must be periodically re-examined. This re-examination in light of certain areas of expression becomes increasingly imperative.

The area of work experience is unusually significant during this period because it is frequently the child's first contact with regular employ-

ment. How a pupil reacts to these new demands is critical; not only is he building a permanent record but, more important, he is building work habits as well. The whole range of the individual's social and economic adaptability is in the process of formation. This is usually the first of many occasions in his life when he can "pay his money and take his choice." The price and the choice are indicative of his sense of values. His work record, his response to supervision and responsibility, his care of money, his increasing sense of worth—all are indexes to the counselor's understanding of the pupil's growth.

The second area of observation is that of physical expression, or play. In an uninhibited play situation, where the child rises or falls on his own ability to get along with his playmates, the maladjusted personality soon becomes evident. The poor sport, the weakling, the domineering individual—each gives evidence of fundamental difficulties within himself that the counselor cannot afford to ignore. He may not be able to diagnose and treat these difficulties specifically, but he can cope with obvious behavior difficulties and, by so doing, press the pupil toward mature reactions. For the child at this age, it must be assumed, desires to be poised and adult, even though he may not recognize the desire.

The third area, mental and emotional expression, is a crucial one and must be treated by the counselor in as delicate a fashion as possible. That the

child is developing a definite contour of personality, with all that personality implies, is impossible to ignore; and the counselor is forced, day by day, to deal with a more inflexible pattern of response and attitude. The telltale signs of intolerant thinking, of unsocial behavior, of emotional outbursts, of negative wilfulness reveal to the observant counselor the type and extent of a youth's maturation. These are also the points at which the counselor may do battle, not with the child, but with the unhealthy factors within the child's integrating self. The fact that youth will become integrated must be accepted. The problems are "Around what?" and "How well?"

COUNSELING ANALYSIS SHEET

III. Third Year

A. Personal data

1. Has the pupil's background data changed in any way?
2. Has the pupil developed an aptitude in any special field?
3. How did the pupil get along with schoolmates during the last semester?
4. Are his interests and needs similar to those of others in his group?
5. Are there significant background facts which may affect him in this stage of his development?
6. Are his social relationships developing normally?
7. Is the pupil's ninth-grade work comparable with his previous achievement?

B. Work data

1. Has this individual held a job of any kind? If so, what?
2. Is his work record satisfactory?
3. What was the duration of his employment? Reason for quitting?

4. Was he given a good reference?
 5. Has pupil worked through necessity?
 6. Does he take care of his own money?
 7. How important to him is the kind of work record he has made?
 8. Did any serious difficulties arise between him and his employer?
 9. Does the pupil believe that he has done or is doing a good job?
- C. Physical and emotional growth
1. Is the pupil developing personal poise and confidence?
 2. Is the pupil's conduct coming more into line with social behavior?
 3. Is he readily accepted by the group?
 4. Are his relations with the opposite sex becoming more mature and adult?
 5. Does the pupil react favorably to situations in which supervision is absent?
 6. Does the pupil show any severe emotional tensions?
 7. Does the pupil's reaction differ from that of others of the same age in any particular situation?

SUMMARY COMMENTS

These analysis sheets are not intended to be complete or exhaustive or to cover every exigency of the growing pupil's experience. Rather they will suggest to the counselor certain definite patterns which may guide him in his counseling.

The teacher who comes upon a pupil at any given level may see a child, a gangling adolescent, or a poised individual with all the representations of maturity. It is a mistake to assume that one may understand the person in any comprehensible fashion by a haphazard or static approach. The longer the period of teacher-pupil relationship, the better the counseling may become. The three-year span in the junior high school, while not of ideal length, is long enough for pupil and teacher to become extremely well known to each other. Three years gives enough span for the transitional period. To the slowly maturing youth, it gives time to become an adolescent; to the rapidly developing individual, it is not too long a time in which to adjust to his newer self.

During this time the counselor has watched, has studied, and has attempted to understand the pupil whom he guides. Many times he will fail to develop an intimate relationship with a child; many times he will come very close. Whatever success may be his is the result of having learned to know the child well and of having built up a relationship that is normal and mature. He must learn to know the child as completely as possible and must effect an understanding as mature, as adult, and as human as he can muster.

IMPROVING TEACHING COMBINATIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

STEPHEN ROMINE

University of Colorado

*

ONE of the major problems facing secondary-school administrators in Colorado is that of securing and retaining the services of teachers adequately qualified and prepared to offer instruction in two or more subject fields. It seems reasonable to assume that administrators elsewhere are confronted with similar problems. The majority of high schools in Colorado are small, and their curriculums are traditional. Combined with a condition of inadequate financial support, these factors contribute to the existence of an educational situation which, at best, is not satisfactory.

Teacher-training institutions also are concerned; for, regardless of modern theory, theirs is the task of supplying teachers who can successfully fill the types of jobs available in the secondary schools. Undoubtedly reorganization of school districts, increased financial support, and the development of curriculums more effective for meeting the needs of living in this atomic age are essential to any reasonably complete and satisfactory solution of the problem. Unfortunately, accomplishing these developments probably will require a long period of time. Meanwhile "school must go on,"

and a look at existing conditions may suggest some ideas which will be helpful in satisfying immediate and pressing demands.

THE SURVEY

The figures and recommendations presented in this article are based on a study which includes all accredited public high schools in Colorado, except those of Denver. The latter are not included because, in so far as securing and assigning teachers are concerned, their problems tend to be different from those facing schools in smaller communities. Included in the study are 193 high-school administrative units involving 229 schools, in which 1,661 classroom teachers are employed in the upper four grades. The class schedules and other materials which served as a basis for the study were submitted as part of the annual accreditation report; thus responses were complete in each case.

Two groups of schools are included: (1) those accredited only by the University of Colorado and (2) those accredited both by the University and by the North Central Association. This division seems logical because, as a group, the North Central schools

generally are larger, more adequately financed, employ more fully qualified teachers, and, in many other ways, are better able to meet the needs and interests of youth. Within each of these groups, the schools are divided into categories on the basis of the size of their educational staffs. In determination of the size of staff, all individuals offering one or more classes in any grade from Grade IX through Grade XII are counted, but in the tabulation of teaching combinations only those individuals teaching half time or more are included. Classes offered in Grades VII and VIII of six-year high schools are not included in the combinations. No differentiation is made between organizational types of high schools, such as the three-year, the four-year, and the six-year.

TEACHING COMBINATIONS

Existing teaching combinations involve from one to four subject fields. In the group of 106 high-school administrative units accredited only by the University of Colorado, 79 different teaching combinations are found among 423 teachers. In the group of 87 North Central high-school administrative units, 88 different teaching combinations exist, distributed among 1,238 teachers. Combining the two groups of schools yields a total of 110 different combinations. Art, music, and physical education, with the exception of two combinations involving only these three fields, were tabulated only when offered alone and not in combination with other teaching

fields. This method of tabulation was adopted for two reasons: (1) because of the difficulty of determining accurately whether or not courses offered in these fields were comparable in time, preparation involved, and in other ways to the more so-called "solid" subjects and (2) because many teachers with full teaching loads in other combinations also were offering additional work in art, music, and physical education. Some of the work offered in

TABLE 1
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF TEACHING COMBINATIONS INVOLVING ONE, TWO, THREE, AND FOUR SUBJECT FIELDS

NUMBER OF FIELDS	SCHOOLS ACCREDITED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO		SCHOOLS ACCREDITED BY THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1.....	12	15	15	17
2.....	29	37	46	52
3.....	31	39	26	30
4.....	7	9	1	1
Total.	79	100	88	100

these latter fields appeared to be organized in courses, but much of it did not. Therefore, to include these fields in combination with others might easily give a false impression of the degree to which such activities (art, music, and physical education) have been received into the curriculums of Colorado high schools. However, in those cases in which teachers are employed to offer courses in such fields exclusively, they are included in the study.

The extent to which teaching combinations involving one, two, three,

and four subject-matter fields are found in the two groups of secondary schools is revealed in Table 1. Roughly, 70 per cent of the teaching combinations in North Central schools involve only one or two fields, whereas in schools accredited only by the Uni-

teachers offer classes in only one or two fields, exclusive of art, music, and physical education, which many of them handle as activities. Those schools in which teachers have combinations involving more than two subject fields generally are so small

TABLE 2
PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS OFFERING CLASSES IN ONE OR MORE SUBJECT FIELDS

SIZE OF STAFF*	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS ACCREDITED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO				PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS ACCREDITED BY THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION			
	One Field	Two Fields	Three Fields	Four Fields	One Field	Two Fields	Three Fields	Four Fields
3-4†	21	47	28	4	12	56	29	3
5-6	38	46	15	1	40	49	11	0
7-8	46	44	10	0	55	38	7	0
9-10	56	28	16	0	60	31	9	0
11-12	†	†	†	†	73	22	5	0
13-14	†	†	†	†	73	25	2	0
15-16	†	†	†	†	68	24	8	0
17-18	†	†	†	†	78	22	0	0
19-20	†	†	†	†	72	28	0	0
21-30§	100	0	0	0	84	15	1	0
31-40	†	†	†	†	80	15	5	0
41 and up	†	†	†	†	88	12	0	0
Total	38	42	18	2	70	25	5	0 ¶

* Includes persons offering one or more classes in any of Grades IX through XII.

† Includes some branch of North Central Association high schools having fewer than three teachers.

‡ There are no schools accredited only by the University in these categories.

§ Note change in size of interval of categories.

|| Only one school accredited only by the University is in this category.

¶ The fractional percentage is less than 0.5 per cent and hence is considered 0.

versity about half the combinations involve one or two subject fields.

Another aspect of the status of teacher assignment is shown in Table 2, which presents the percentages of teachers offering classes in combinations involving one or more subject fields. As might be expected, there is a definite trend toward concentration in fewer fields in the larger schools. Regardless of the size of educational staff in the schools, the majority of

that, unless such combinations were used, the educational offering would be very limited. Larger schools sometimes are faced with the same problem because of the teacher shortage or late resignations, either of which often results in placing an additional load on the remaining members of the staff.

In spite of the teacher shortage and the operation of other factors which adversely affect the condition of teach-

ing combinations, many schools are able to assign teachers within a single field of preparation. Study of the transcripts of teachers and their assignments reveals that some administrators could do a much better job of

TABLE 3
SUBJECT FIELDS AND COMBINATIONS
INVOLVING GREATEST NUMBER OF TEACHERS

SUBJECT FIELD	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS INVOLVED IN—	
	Schools Accredited by the University of Colorado	Schools Accredited by the North Central Association
Commercial subjects.	10	10
English.....	7	13
English and social studies.....	7	4
Mathematics and science.....	6
Social studies.....	5	8
Mathematics.....	4	7
Commercial subjects and English.....	4
Science.....	3	7
Commercial subjects and social studies.....	3
English and Spanish.....	3
Industrial arts.....	6
Music.....	6
Home economics.....	5
Physical education.....	4
Total.....	52	70

assigning teachers than they now are doing. Those subject fields involving the greatest number of teachers, together with the percentage of teachers in each total group included in the subject field or combination, are shown in Table 3.

In any combination involving two or more subject fields, no attempt was made to determine in which field the

majority of the work was offered. Therefore, it should not be assumed that the subject field which is listed first in such combinations is the one in which most of the teaching is done. Table 4 shows the most commonly found combinations of one, two, and three subject fields, with percentages representing the proportionate part each combination is of the particular numerical group under consideration.

Each of the combinations involving four fields appears only once. That these combinations are similar with respect to subject fields included is evident from the following examples: commercial subjects, English, science, and social studies; commercial subjects, mathematics, science, and social studies; industrial arts, mathematics, science, and social studies; commercial subjects, mathematics, science, and Spanish. Almost invariably, assignments to teach in four fields are found only in small schools in which there is a great deal of teacher turnover. To a somewhat lesser degree, the same comment may be made with respect to assignments in three fields.

ASSIGNMENT OF TEACHERS

Undoubtedly the present teacher shortage lies at the root of many assignments and teaching combinations, which otherwise probably would not exist. This is not the sole reason for poor assignments, however. From the information presented in this article, from personal interviews on the job with administrators and teachers in 135 high schools, and from other data

considered in the study, certain observations regarding the assignment of teachers may be made.

less qualified in other respects and where tenure is poorest. For example, about 20 per cent of the teachers em-

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGES OF TEACHERS TEACHING VARIOUS SUBJECTS IN MOST
COMMON COMBINATIONS OF ONE, TWO, AND THREE SUBJECTS

TEACHING COMBINATIONS	PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS	
	Schools Ac- credited by University of Colorado	Schools Ac- credited by North Cen- tral Associa- tion
Single field:		
Commercial subjects.....	25	14
English.....	18	18
Social studies.....	14	12
Mathematics.....	11	10
Science.....	9	10
Total.....	77	64
Two fields:		
English and social studies.....	16	15
Mathematics and science.....	15	12
Commercial subjects and English.....	10	
English and Spanish.....	7	10
Science and social studies.....	7	6
Commercial subjects and social studies.....	7	
English and Latin.....		6
Mathematics and social studies.....		5
Total.....	62	54
Three fields:		
English, social studies, and commercial subjects.....	11	7
English, social studies, and Spanish.....	11	5
English, social studies, and science.....	7	
English, Latin, and Spanish.....	7	20
Science, social studies, and commercial subjects.....	7	
Mathematics, social studies, and science.....		10
Mathematics, social studies, and English.....		8
Mathematics, social studies, and commercial sub- jects.....		5
Mathematics, science, and industrial arts.....		5
Total.....	43	60

First, teaching combinations involving three or more subject fields are found most frequently in smaller high schools, where teachers generally are relatively less well prepared and

employed in high schools having a teaching staff of fewer than seven offer classes in at least three subject fields. In schools of three or four teachers this percentage is much higher.

Second, assignment of teachers sometimes depends on what is thought to be needed in the way of courses or on what usually has been offered in the past, with slight regard for the preparation of teachers. Or, more often, assignment depends on the preparation of teachers, with little consideration of the relation of the subjects or subject fields involved. In some schools, teachers having no college preparation in the subjects are assigned to teach such courses as Latin or physics. Occasionally two members of a faculty are assigned subjects which they are not prepared to offer, when a mere exchange of courses would place each in a subject field in which he is qualified. In their anxiety to complete their faculties, some boards of education and administrators employ teachers with little consideration of the individuals' qualifications or of how their preparation fits in with that of other members of the staff. Afterward, the curriculums are fitted to the teachers, frequently with some rather odd results. For example, English classes offered in the school may be divided among three teachers; or there is no teacher who is prepared in mathematics or science, with the result that no science is given during the year, and the mathematics courses are offered by the teacher having the most preparation in the field, however inadequate that preparation may be.

Third, many assignments involve unusual teaching combinations, so that replacement by competent teach-

ers who are qualified in all respects is most difficult. Any of the combinations involving four subject fields fall in this classification, as do many which involve only three, or even only two, fields. The following are examples of unusual combinations: commercial subjects and Latin; English and industrial arts; commercial subjects, Latin, and science; home economics, mathematics, and social studies; and agriculture, commercial subjects, and social studies. Loss of a teacher offering such a combination frequently disrupts the entire educational program simply because another individual qualified in the same fields cannot be found.

SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENTS

No criticism is intended of individuals or schools involved in any of the illustrations presented in this article. The observations and examples are cited merely to point out the existence of conditions which, in many instances, may be improved by a little extra care and foresight. Generally speaking, schools accredited by the North Central Association do a better job of assigning teachers than do other schools, although this is not true in every case. The most difficult problems seem to be those of the smaller schools, regardless of who accredits them.

At the beginning of this article it was suggested that reorganization of school districts, increased financial support, and improved curriculums are essential to better teaching com-

binations. This statement is particularly true of smaller schools. Nevertheless, schools, like pupils, must be "taken where and as they are," and progress made from that point. With this in mind, certain suggestions are offered to assist in meeting immediate demands and improving teacher assignments under the existing conditions of teacher shortage. If maximum improvement is to be made, three groups, secondary-school administrators, teacher-training institutions, and teachers, must co-operate.

Secondary-school administrators may do much to improve teaching assignments by observing the following general principles.

1. Each school should have a definite policy with respect to teacher assignments and should work for its implementation and improvement. Boards of education and administrators must work together on this policy.

2. In so far as possible, the teachers employed should possess the qualifications and preparation which will permit assignment in those combinations most frequently found in secondary schools, and the teachers then should be so assigned. This requirement entails that administrators become acquainted with common teaching combinations.

3. Before employing a teacher, the administrator should acquaint himself with the individual's qualifications in order to make certain that his preparation will fit him into the pattern of courses which is to be presented by the faculty.

4. Before assigning a teacher, the administrator should study carefully the individual's qualifications, particularly his college preparation and past teaching experience. Special consideration should be given to new or inexperienced personnel, and, in so far as possible, every individual should be assigned a combination in which his qualifications and

preparation will enable him to make the greatest possible contribution to the educational program. New or inexperienced teachers should not be assigned to teach in fields in which they are not prepared.

5. Assignment in more than two subject fields is undesirable and should be avoided if possible. However, in smaller schools, it is doubtful if this principle can always be observed.

6. A certain degree of flexibility in assignment is desirable, but only in exceptional cases should teachers—and then only experienced teachers—be assigned in subject fields in which they have little or no college preparation. Assignment to subject fields in which the individual is ill prepared generally is unsatisfactory and proves an injustice both to the teacher and to his pupils. If it is necessary to offer courses for which no qualified teacher is available, the use of supervised correspondence courses to be procured from regionally accredited public educational institutions is recommended.

7. School administrators should promote in-service training programs for upgrading teachers on the job. This may require that school districts defray the costs of extension work or correspondence courses in order to meet the requirements of their particular situation. Teachers may also be encouraged to attend summer school, if some financial remuneration or reward is forthcoming. Smaller schools may find it advantageous to secure the best-qualified teachers within their means, pay them enough to retain them for a few years, and make provision for upgrading them in service. In this way, the yearly turnover of staff, a most uneconomical and inefficient condition, may be avoided.

Teacher-training institutions may co-operate in several ways to implement improvement in teacher assignment:

1. By guiding prospective secondary-school teachers into those teaching fields

which are logically related and which are found most frequently in secondary schools.

2. By providing broad training and preparation within several teaching fields as well as specialized training and preparation.

3. By investigating the need for training a certain number of teachers in as many as three teaching fields. The desirability of assigning individuals to teach in more than two fields is questionable, but it is a fact that such assignments are being made. Generally the less experienced individuals get such assignments, and, unless a teacher has some preparation in the fields he teaches, his contribution may prove to be negligible.

4. By providing courses in summer school that will enable teachers to meet the preparation requirements of subject-matter fields as well as the professional requirements. In this connection, a survey of the courses most needed would be very helpful. Also, the teacher-training institutions of a state might co-operate in order to meet better the needs of teachers each year. These institutions should offer extension work and correspondence courses also and in other ways should co-operate with secondary schools in promoting in-service training programs for the upgrading of teachers on the job.

5. By making available, through more efficient co-operation of teacher-training institutions, placement agencies, and secondary schools, teachers who are better prepared for their jobs. Such co-operation would also help in placing-teachers where they probably would be happiest and would make their greatest contribution.

The role of the teacher in this joint enterprise should not be minimized. He may assist in the following ways:

1. By taking advantage of the guidance services of teacher-training institutions and

by preparing himself to fill successfully the type of jobs most frequently found in the secondary schools.

2. By keeping in his possession a transcript of his college work so that administrators may determine his qualifications and assign him in those subject fields in which he is prepared to teach. Many teachers and administrators fail in their dual responsibility on this point.

3. By preparing more adequately to discharge his responsibilities through co-operation in in-service training programs, completion of extension work or correspondence courses, and attendance at summer school, particularly as related to the removing of deficiencies in his preparation for teaching.

4. By adherence to professional ethics in regard to resigning and accepting a new position.

CONCLUSION

It is recognized that circumstances may not always permit complete adherence to the principles suggested. However, everyone concerned should do his best in this respect. Then, too, although conditions identical to those found in Colorado high schools probably are not duplicated elsewhere, a survey of educational literature suggests sufficient similarity so that the general principles outlined in this article may be applied in other states also. Times are difficult, and only the co-operation of boards of education, administrators, teacher-training institutions, and teachers will make possible the much-needed improvement in assignment to teaching combinations.

THE PAST IS TOO MUCH WITH US

H. BOODISH

Dobbins Vocational School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

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DURING the course of World War II a group of students were discussing how war could be eliminated and how youth could contribute their share to this objective. At the beginning of the discussion many suggestions such as the following were made: "Kill the Japs." "Get rid of the Germans." "Form a League of Nations." "Use force." "Educate the people." Then one student made a statement that temporarily stopped all debate; he said, "You can't stop wars; you'll always have wars."

There was no counterargument. The statement was almost like a bombshell in its effect. Eager faces lost their spirit. Raised hands dropped. "That's right," everyone seemed to agree, "you can't stop wars." However, the power that silenced further argument came not from the logic of the statement but from the fact that it represented what people have been saying and feeling for hundreds of years. This idea has been used so effectively, and without contradiction, for such a long time that it has become accepted as an axiom.

The young man who made the statement was about to be inducted into the armed forces. He knew "what he was in for." Like millions of others, he knew that he was going on

a mission from which he might not return or from which he might return crippled for life. Yet he was accepting the inevitability of his fate. "You can't stop wars," he said. He did not even try to see whether there might be something that mankind could do to put an end to these periodic catastrophes. Moreover, he is not the only one who believes war to be inevitable. By their very silence—even though it was a temporary silence—the other students admitted that they felt as he did. Furthermore, it is not youth alone who lack faith in future peace; adults also feel that way.

The lack of faith in the future peace of the world stems from the fact that we have been taught to believe that the past is a guide for the future. Thus the past conditions our thinking about the future. We have seen too many treaties dismissed as scraps of paper. We have seen too many promises broken. We have seen too many plans find their way into the international wastebasket. We have had wars with us for such a long time that we cannot imagine a world without them. Yet who will deny that there exists in every individual, except for a few who are misguided in their thinking, a strong desire for an end to war and a burning hope for lasting peace?

Contrary to what some people have maintained, human nature is not the cause of war. The average person wants peace and security. He wants a decent home. He wants a family. He wants a productive job. He wants to create. He wants friendship and companionship from his fellow-men. In spite of all this, every so often men fight and kill. We all know that it is stupid to do so, but there are forces beyond our control, so we argue, which make us do these things.

Although some of us may be skeptical about the effectiveness of any plan or plans to eliminate war, nevertheless plans are being made. Perhaps the plan that may yield the greatest results is the one that aims to harness the forces of education. If youth can be indoctrinated and educated to love war, why cannot they be indoctrinated to hate war and love peace? As a matter of fact, in this country we were so successful in this endeavor after World War I that one of the main reasons for Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor was her belief that we hated war so intensely that we would not fight, even if attacked. The mistake we made in this country (and similar mistakes were made by England and France) was our failure to appreciate that, in order for education for peace to be effective, it must be applied universally, not limited to one or two countries. Now we at last realize that we cannot prevent wars by teaching hatred for war and love for peace in our own country only, while schools of other countries teach the opposite.

However, education against war is

only a small part of the whole job. The press, radio, motion pictures, books, and periodicals also must take a hand in the campaign for peace. In short, we must eliminate all possible propaganda designed to promote war hysteria. There is an old saying that rumor repeated often enough becomes fact. Fears and rumors about wars seem to have the same effect. They condition people to expect wars—at least to accept them as inevitable.

The manner in which this state of mind is brought about psychologically is quite similar to an experience that many a child has had in his grammar-school years. Usually, among grammar-school children of any class or school, there can be only one boy who is looked upon as the leader. He assumes leadership either by saying that he can beat up everyone else or by actually whipping anyone who challenges him. Frequently it happens that there is no one boy who wants to be the leader. However, the youngsters will not let this state of affairs continue for long. The other children start questioning those two or three boys who appear to be the strongest: "Can you beat him?" "Can you beat him?" "Can you beat him?" Self-pride causes the boys who are questioned to say "Yes." Finally all are eliminated, save two boys who say they can beat up all others, though inwardly they may be doubtful about each other's inferiority. The rest of the boys do not allow this doubt to continue either. Through their own methods of propaganda, they finally force the two boys, who may have

nothing against each other, to a test. The result is a couple of black eyes and, usually, no final decision.

As adults, we frequently carry over this same type of behavior into our thinking about nations. We believe that there must be first-rate powers, second-rate powers, and third-rate powers. Then we conclude that it is impossible for two first-rate powers to exist in peace, that sooner or later they will "have it out." Let us look at history. At the end of World War I, Japan began to be regarded as a coming first-rate power; the United States was also a first-rate power. The conclusion was, then, that someday we should have to fight Japan. We did. Now Russia is a first-rate power; so is the United States. What is the conclusion?

Obviously it is not only this childish psychology that was responsible for our war with Japan. There were sufficient political and economic factors—inevitable ones as things worked out—for the clash. The point to be stressed is this: political and economic differences are inevitable. After all, even a man and his wife have their differences. Can we expect less of nations? We cannot, but we can expect to solve the differences peacefully.

This problem is a task not only for the leaders of our government but for all the people. We must give up the philosophy of accepting the inevitability of war. Naturally, achieving this end is more difficult than merely wishing for it; for at the basis of most of our wars are the struggle for existence and the struggle for power. Within

any one nation, there are other manifestations of the economic struggle between men, such as industrial disputes, political elections, and ideological verbalisms. The economic factor, we must admit, has been and continues to be the basis of strife.

The very presence of this economic struggle, in the face of the great strides that mankind has made in conquering the forces of nature, is an indication that mankind, in spite of his vaunted progress in material things, has moved at a snail's pace in conquering himself. We frequently flatter ourselves that we are civilized. We look back at primitive man, living in caves, wearing animal skins for clothing, eating uncooked flesh, and we call him uncivilized. Then we look at ourselves. We point to our skyscrapers, to our mile-long factories, to our automobiles, airplanes, radios, and television sets, and to our hundreds of other modern paraphernalia. We pat ourselves on the back and think we are civilized. In a sense, it is true that we are more civilized than the cave man, but we shall never be fully civilized until we can feel free to walk out of our houses without locking the doors, until we feel that we can trust one another completely, both as individuals and as nations.

In a streetcar in one of our large eastern cities, there is, among the usual car advertisements, a pictograph explaining the origin of the word "Yankee." This chart pictures a colonist and an Indian, facing each other and apparently greeting each other in a friendly manner. However,

the colonist holds a musket behind his back, while the Indian has a concealed tomahawk. The picture might be interpreted to mean that, although the colonist and the Indian both want to trust each other, both are afraid. Apparently they have had experiences in the past which have caused them to be afraid. The situation of the world today is not unlike this picture. The nations of the world also would like to trust each other. We would like to trust Russia, and Russia would like to trust us, but we both are afraid.

People say that the discovery of how to unleash atomic energy—more than any other discovery—has awakened mankind to the realization that spiritually he is but little further advanced than primitive man and that in this respect he lags thousands of years behind his material and scientific progress. However, the atomic bomb is only one of a series of discoveries and inventions that should long ago have brought us to this conclusion. Dynamite, the submarine, and the airplane—to mention only three inventions—bear testimony to the manner in which we have misused the work of our scientists.

Is education at fault? Some people would like to put the blame on education, but we must remember that education has never been more than a reflection of the spiritual thinking of the times, the perpetuator of the *status quo*. Yes, education is at fault, but so is the church, the home, our agencies of communication, and, in fact, society itself.

We cannot end with a condemnation of society and its institutions, however. The beliefs of society are but the combined thinking of all its members. Finding fault with the individual is not a solution either, for the individual is basically conditioned in his make-up by society.

What, then, is the answer? What is to be done? Perhaps the answer is already here in the form of the United Nations. Of course we know that as presently constituted the U.N. is not a perfect instrument for the promotion of universal peace. Many people fear for its success because one of its leading members already has threatened to walk out. But when has any successful undertaking ever gone along without having to face some crisis that threatened to undermine its existence? Here, again, we are guilty of judging the future too much by the past. We see the ghost of the League of Nations, and we conclude that the United Nations will meet the same fate.

For too long a time mankind has followed the philosophy of resigning himself to fate. This fatalistic attitude is found not only in our thinking regarding war but in all our thinking about the future. We accept the inevitability of business cycles, of depressions, of slums, of poverty, of crime, of unemployment, and of war because we have not been able to conquer them in the past. It is time to change our mental attitude and to stop using the past as a crystal ball with which to foretell the future.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GORDON N. MACKENZIE AND GEORGE M. SHARP

Teachers College, Columbia University

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ONE year ago "a great increase in the generally available literature on secondary-school administration" was reported. During the past year there has been another increase, with almost two times as many titles appearing from July 1, 1945, to June 30, 1946, as were published in the preceding twelve months. The range of topics covered has increased, and there have been several shifts in emphasis.

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550. HARBERT, GRACE G. "Democracy in Action in the Cafeteria," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVII (June, 1946), 64-65.

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551. KNOX, WARREN W. "Secondary Education for a Changed World," *New York State Education*, XXXIII (February and March, 1946), 397-400, 471-73.

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552. LONG, WINIFRED R. "Junior College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (February, 1946), 280-84.

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556. BEDELL, EARL L. "The Veterans Education Program in the Detroit Public Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (December, 1945), 74-80.

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558. HESS, WALTER E. "State Requirements for a High School Diploma for the Veteran," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (March, 1946), 55-108.

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559. JOHNSON, WILLIAM H. "Chicago Public Schools Aid Returning Veterans," *Chicago Schools Journal*, XXVII (January-June, 1946), 49-53.

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560. "Many Veterans Need High School Diploma . . .," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXIII (November, 1945), 156-57.

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562. VANDERLIP, ROBERT G. "Washington's High School Center for Veterans," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (December, 1945), 81-82.

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586. BOLMEIER, E. C. "Reporting Pupil Progress," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (April, 1946), 78-84, 142.

Describes the grading and reporting system which is in use in the Jackson, Mississippi, secondary schools.

587. "An Experiment on the Improvement of Report Cards," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (February, 1946), 27-31.

Reports the results of an experiment conducted by the faculty of the annexes of Woodrow Wilson Vocational High School, Jamaica, New York City.

588. FOWLER, FRED M. "Educational Experience Summary," *School Executive*, LXIV (July, 1945), 43-44.

Presents a card that draws together, in convenient relationship, the most significant

³ See also Item 377 (O'Donnell) in the list of selected references appearing in the April, 1946, issue of the *School Review* and Item 494 (Traxler) in the September, 1946, number of the same journal.

data from the individual's school record. Cards are distributed to all secondary schools by United States Office of Education.

589. FOX, BENJAMIN. "Evaluation in the Vocational High Schools," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (March, 1946), 26-31.

Reports the results of a questionnaire survey of evaluation procedures used in New York City vocational high schools.

590. HAUSSE, E. W. "Marks That Aid in Guidance," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI (December, 1945), 25.

Presents a report card from which a pupil can obtain an adequate picture of his abilities and capacities in the light of modern needs and thus is aided in choosing his vocation wisely and helped to adjust happily to his social environment.

591. PENHALE, RANDALL R. "Citations: A Spur to Student Effort," *Journal of Education*, CXXVIII (November, 1945), 276-77.

Asserts that brief, carefully worded statements of teachers or administrators relative to a boy or girl have been considered more indicative of a pupil's potentialities than his marks.

592. STILES, LINDLEY J. "Up-to-Date Reporting," *School Executive*, LXV (January, 1946), 50-52.

Explains the system of reporting pupil progress developed by the teachers of the secondary schools of Boulder, Colorado.

593. WRIGHTSTONE, J. W. "Improving the Methods of Assigning School Marks," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (January, 1946), 27-33.

Analyzes the major causes of confusion in assigning marks and gives suggestions for improving marks on both subject matter and personality characteristics.

594. WRIGHTSTONE, J. W., and LASS, A. H. "Evaluation in the Secondary Schools

of New York City," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (March, 1946), 11-12.

Gives some generalizations revealed by the first reports of an exploratory questionnaire sent to all academic and vocational high schools in New York City inquiring as to practices prevailing in the evaluation programs.

ACTIVITY ACCOUNTS

595. ELSDON, CYRIL L. "Why No Student Activities Budget?" *School Activities*, XVII (September, 1945), 14-15.

Advocates the use of the student-activity budget as a financial and educational plan.

596. ELSDON, CYRIL L. "Cash Audits Only Are Inadequate," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVII (January, 1946), 42-43.

Stresses the need for a complete audit of internal school accounts.

597. GILLESPIE, H. C. "An Accounting System for Junior High Schools," *School Activities*, XVII (January, 1946), 169-70.

Gives a concise description of an internal accounting system that has proved satisfactory at Roosevelt Junior High School, Erie, Pennsylvania.

CLASS SCHEDULES

598. GILBERT, ALFRED E. "Extended Period: Rotating Plan Gives School's Classes 90-Minute Sessions for Special Work," *Clearing House*, XX (May, 1946), 551-53.

Values of the plan in operation at Washington Irving Junior High School, Schenectady, New York.

599. SHIPP, FREDERIC T. "A Flexible Daily Schedule for a Modern High School," *American School Board Journal*, CXI (October, 1945), 58.

Lays out a simple and flexible schedule that takes into account a changing curriculum, expanding student activities, and the demand for enlarged community services.

600. SHIPP, FREDERIC T. "A Flexible Activity Period in the High School," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXI (January, 1946), 18-20.

Describes the benefits deriving from an activity period and the manner in which it is implemented in the daily schedule.

601. SMITH, W. S. "Conflict Sheet Aids Scheduling," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVII (June, 1946), 46.

Discusses the plan used by the William Horlick High School, Racine, Wisconsin, to locate conflicts.

LIBRARY AND STUDY HALL

602. LADERER, WILLIAM C., JR. "Reliant Study Groups," *Clearing House*, XX (April, 1946), 480-81.

Explains the plan for pupil-operated study rooms which was successful at Mellon Junior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

603. MINSTER, MAUD. "Books beyond the Budget," *Clearing House*, XX (September, 1945), 25-26.

Suggests a high-school library as a "living" war memorial and describes one at Altoona, Pennsylvania.

604. MORRIS, W. H. "The School Library and the Principal," *American School Board Journal*, CXII (March, 1946), 26-27, 92.

Discusses the relation of the principal to the support, management, and success of the high-school library.

STAFF RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS

605. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W., GRAN, JOHN M., and HOLT, AGNES E. "The Duties and Responsibilities of the Assistant Principal in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (March, 1946), 3-11.

Reports the results of two recent studies made in Minnesota and Wisconsin.

606. BOSSING, NELSON-L. "Wanted: A New Leadership for the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (April, 1946), 92-100.

Explores some recent suggestions that the secondary-school principal's job is to run a "smooth" school and leave the creative work to the superintendent.

607. CAMPBELL, LAWRENCE R. "How Principals Help the School Press," *School Activities*, XVII (February, 1946), 224-25.

Summarizes steps which some administrators take to help students and advisers to improve student publications.

608. DAVIES, D. R. "Teacher's Record System or Museum Piece?" *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI (December, 1945), 41-42.

Presents a type of teacher-record system designed to help the administrator view teachers as counselors, guides, and parents by proxy.

609. GRAFFAM, DONALD T. "Guidance," *Sierra Educational News*, XLII (March, 1946), 10-11.

Asserts that the administrator, the classroom teacher, and the specially trained guidance worker have indispensable parts to play in guidance.

610. LEWIS, HAL, and LEFS, J. M. "When Principals Supervise," *Educational Leadership*, III (January, 1946), 160-63.

Tells the story of the principal as supervisor, what his tasks are and how they grew.

611. LLOYD, DANIEL B. "The Department Headship," *Secondary Education*, XII (September-October, 1945), 12-14.

Discusses briefly the duties and responsibilities of the department head.

612. MENNES, HAROLD. "Personal Relationships in School Administration," *Bulletin of the National Association of*

Secondary-School Principals, XXX (April, 1946), 116-17.

Analyzes the administrative responsibilities of the principal.

613. PINCKNEY, PAUL W. "A Plan for High School Supervision," *Educational Leadership*, III (January, 1946), 157-59.
Proposes a supervisory plan in which the principal has the chief supervisory function.

614. WILENS, GERTRUDE DAIN. "Willingly to School," *New York State Education*, XXXIII (March, 1946), 466-67.
Traces the development of the truant officer into an attendance supervisor.

TEACHER LOAD⁴

615. CHASE, VERNON E. "Preventing 'Power Leaks,'" *School Executive*, LXV (January, 1946), 52-53.

Points out a popular fallacy in a common measure of teaching load and suggests how this index may be turned to more profitable use in the promotion of teacher welfare and efficiency.

616. IRWIN, LEONARD B. "Equalizing Teaching Loads in Secondary Schools," *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), 27-29.

Analyzes the problem and presents a formula for determining loads.

617. LYON, LUTHER H. "A Plan for Evaluation of Teacher Load," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (October, 1945), 346-49.

Presents a tentative plan developed at the San Francisco Junior College.

STAFF MEETINGS

618. MILLER, CHESTER F. "Previewing the Year Ahead," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI (July, 1945), 20-21.

⁴ See also Item 50 (Nelson) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Recommends the pre-school conference as one of the best opportunities to carry out in-service training at an opportune time and with a minimum of interruption to the regular work of the school.

619. "Summer Is Planning Time," *Michigan Education Journal*, XXIII (May, 1946), 500-501.

Gives suggestions for planning pre-school conferences. Based on an interview with Roland C. Faunce.

SCHOOL PLANT AND EQUIPMENT

620. FLESHER, W. R. "Secondary-School Buildings in Twelve Ohio Cities," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXV (March 13, 1946), 57-63.

Presents results of a survey made of a sample of the secondary-school buildings in Ohio cities, indicating their age, facilities, and general adequacy.

621. GREENE, CLARENCE WILSON. "Master Lists and Storage of Equipment Used in High School Courses in Science," *American School Board Journal*, CXII (January, 1946), 51-53; (February, 1946), 35-38.

Reports a comprehensive survey of equipment used in chemistry courses and gives information on (1) the dimensions of each item; (2) the maximum number of each item appearing on any list examined; (3) the total drawer, cupboard, and shelf area required for proper storage of entire list of items; (4) the height of shelf spaces and the total length of shelf spaces needed for storage of all equipment listed; and (5) the necessary "line" storage for appropriate items. The list is limited to a laboratory class of twenty-four students in chemistry.

622. GREENE, CLARENCE WILSON. "Master Lists and Suggested Methods of Storage of Equipment for the Course in High School Physics," *American School Board Journal*, CXII (April, 1946), 33-36; (May, 1946), 39-40.

Presents for physics the same type of information as indicated above for chemistry.

623. MERRILL, ROBERT B. "Pupils Cooperate in Daily Check on School Maintenance," *Clearing House*, XX (March, 1946), 406-7.

Describes the system used at Anson Academy, North Anson, Maine.

PUBLIC RELATIONS⁵

624. HAVIGHURST, ROBERT J. "Public Relations of the High School," *School Review*, LIV (February, 1946), 63-65.

Recommends a public-relations program to inform the American people of the power and limitations of the secondary school as an educational instrument.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION⁶

625. "Accredited Higher Institutions Outside N.C.A. Territory," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (July, 1945), 51-62.

Gives the latest lists of higher institutions accredited by regional agencies other than the North Central Association.

626. FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. "The North Central Association and the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (January, 1946), 214-27.

Traces the history of the co-operative study of secondary-school standards.

627. HILL, MERTON E. "University of California Admission Problems," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXI (January, 1946), 10-17.

Reports the results of a survey made among 413 public and private high-school principals regarding their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the University's admission requirements.

⁵ See also Item 96 (Ullrich) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1946, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

⁶ See also Item 461 (Longley) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1946, number of the *School Review*.

628. McVEY, WILLIAM E. "The Revision of the Policies, Regulations, and Criteria," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (January, 1946), 211-13.

Reports the work and recommendations of the Committee on the Revision of the Policies, Regulations, and Criteria (secondary school standards).

629. NEILSON, WILLIAM ALLAN (editor). *Annual Handbook, 1945: Terms of Admission to the Colleges of the College Entrance Examination Board*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1945. Pp. iv+204.

Contains the terms of admission, together with related information from all the member-colleges.

630. "Proceedings of the Commission on Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (July, 1945), 63-132.

Gives the policies, regulations, and criteria for the approval of secondary schools and lists those that have been approved.

631. "Statistical Summary of Annual Reports from Secondary Schools, 1944-45," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (January, 1946), 25-62.

A report made by O. K. Garretson, secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools, presenting a list of accredited schools.

632. TOMLINSON, LAURENCE ELLIOTT. *College Entrance Requirements*. Portland, Oregon: Educational Studies (2016 N.W. Overton Street), 1945. Pp. 50.

A comparison of the 1932 and 1944 entrance requirements of accredited colleges of liberal arts.

633. UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK. *Subject Requirements for Matriculation in Colleges and Universities of New York State*. Bulletin No. 1308. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1946.

Gives summarized statements of subject and unit requirements for matriculation based on graduation from a secondary school.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A CORRECTION.—In the review of *This Our World: A Pageant of World History* by Bining, Howland, and Shryock (Newson & Co.), appearing in the September, 1946, number of *School Review*, a typographical error occurred in connection with a significant date. On page 430 the expression "its midpoint is about 1263" should read 1763.

THE EDITORS

LITERATURE WHICH INSPIRES ACTIVITY.—Teachers should be pardoned if, amidst the routine and grind of over-organized school systems, they occasionally lose sight of their own youthful inclinations and, as a consequence, of those of the children whom they supposedly inspire. Presumably with the desire to remedy such deficiencies, two authors, one from the East and one from the West, have set about to put into book form some ameliorating essentials. At least, this intention is gathered from the statements made regarding a projected series of six junior and senior high school anthologies, the first of which is just off the press.¹ As indicated in the "Foreword to Teachers," the authors have spent more than ten years in sifting the reactions of one hundred thousand pupils, guided by the viewpoint that "the first and greatest aim in the teaching of literature is the development of a reading habit based on a sincere love of reading" (p. vii). The idea that school should offer more than a routine program is further carried out in Part II, in which out-of-school activities, such as motion pictures, radio, and reading habits are very practically considered.

In each of the nine divisions of Part I are

¹ George W. Norvell and Carol Hovious, *Conquest*, Book I. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. x+598. \$2.00.

included stories, poems, essays, and plays which reflect courage, school life, friendliness of animals, humor, and patriotism. The heading of each division portrays the authors' endeavors to make the material come alive. Preliminary to each selection are a few lines, the purpose of which is to indicate the nature of the selection and to put the pupil into the mood for the particular selection at hand as well as for other reading of a similar nature. At the end of each selection are materials entitled "Recalling the Story," to refresh the pupil's mind on what he has just read; "Thinking It Over," to develop judgment as well as to call attention to desirable character traits; "Words for You," listing those words with which the pupil may have difficulty; and material about the author of the selection.

In Part II are found the following chapters: "Motion Pictures," "The Radio," "The Library," "Reading," "Choral Reading," and "Newspaper Reading." Plans for the entire series indicate that Part II of each volume will contain material which, through its choice and presentation, will build on the knowledge which the pupil has already acquired. For example in Book I the chapter on "Motion Pictures" begins with an interesting account of the origin of motion pictures. Section 1 treats the hows and whys of choosing a motion picture; Section 2 takes up the meaning of terms used in the industry and gives excerpts from the script of "My Friend Flicka"; Section 3 tells how a motion picture is photographed; Section 4 describes theater manners; and Section 5 lists books that the pupil may read to gain a more extended knowledge of motion pictures. From this foundation, according to the authors' plans and purpose, the remaining volumes

will continue the treatment of motion pictures.

The book also contains a Glossary, covering both Parts I and II, in which are given the pronunciation and the meaning of words likely to prove troublesome.

Through the preliminary remarks given before each section, through the types of material selected, and through the questions appearing at the end of each selection, the authors show that they possess a knowledge of the character traits needed by young people in order to cope with the problems that they will meet in actual life. Book I of this series is very much alive. Particular comment on Part II seems justified, not only because of the excellent type of material presented, but also because of the carefully thought out methods of presentation. If our youth use discrimination in the selection of the motion pictures which they attend and in the choice of the radio programs to which they listen; if they learn how to read intelligently and what to read for personal enjoyment during their leisure time, can we not look for a better and a more enlightened citizenry?

EDWIN S. LIDE

*Lake View High School
Chicago, Illinois*

APPRAISING GUIDANCE IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.—Administrators and teachers of secondary schools have centered their interest in guidance principally in the development of a philosophy and in the organization of activities promoting the study of the individual student as a personnel basis for education. Evaluation of the results of high-school guidance efforts has failed to receive the attention which it deserves. One reason for the neglect of this important phase has been the lack of widespread understanding of the techniques of evaluation among those persons responsible for high-school guidance. A new book¹ renders a distinct service along

these lines by outlining clearly the value and use of various methods of investigation and appraisal and by showing how the effective evaluation of guidance in a school can contribute to the in-service training of the entire staff and to the improvement of the general educational program. The author has included a wealth of interesting illustrative material gleaned from her experience of three years as a member of the Committee To Evaluate Guidance in the Public High Schools of New York City.

There are six principal divisions in the book, the first two of which outline the need for evaluation and describe the organization and methods to be followed in initiating a guidance survey. The remaining four chapters deal with the nature and proper use of principal techniques of evaluation, including the questionnaire, interview, observation, and self-evaluation. Three significant points stressed in establishing the need for evaluation include the danger of placing undue emphasis on any one type of guidance—for example, health, educational, vocational, or social guidance—to the neglect of the other essential phases; the influence that an effective guidance system can have on the curriculum by showing the need of keeping it sufficiently adaptable to meet the requirements and interests of students who vary in ability and experiential background; and the importance of adequate guidance records to help teachers gain a better understanding of their students. No arbitrary criteria for evaluating guidance are set up in describing the methodology of the guidance survey because "the success of a guidance program demands that it be flexible and adapted to the needs of the school in which it is operative" (p. 31). However, the author presents a comprehensive list of questions which will prove of valuable assistance to faculty members who are attempting to measure the adequacy of their guidance efforts.

Three chapters analyze the principal in-

¹ Frances Morgan Wilson, *Procedures in Evaluating a Guidance Program*. New York:

Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1945. Pp. viii+210. \$2.60.

struments of research used by survey committees. Strengths and weaknesses of the questionnaire as a method of evaluation are considered, and the implications of various research projects on the construction of the questionnaire are stressed. A complete questionnaire used in the New York City guidance survey is included to illustrate the applications of these findings. A chapter outlines the steps which are essential in planning and conducting a successful guidance evaluation interview, and résumés of interviews, four with teachers and six with students, which indicate factors to be considered in employing this technique, are given. "The Use of Observation in the Guidance Survey" is the title of chapter v, in which are presented a number of practical suggestions for increasing the reliability of this necessarily rather subjective evaluation procedure. Reports in summary form of visits to observe guidance practices in English, history, French, and human-relations classes are included.

The final chapter describes several methods of self-evaluation which school staffs may employ in appraising their own guidance efforts. The procedures suggested include an analysis of high-school holding-power and a study of dropouts as a measure of guidance success, a comparison of failures in experimental and control groups to ascertain the results of educational guidance, follow-up studies of graduates to determine the effect of guidance on the individual student, and a survey of community resources and the extent to which they are utilized in the school guidance program.

Every member of high-school teaching staffs should be encouraged to read this book; for it will help to give teachers an understanding of the results which should be expected from an adequate plan of guidance and will cause them to appreciate more fully the essential role of the classroom teacher in any successful guidance program. Those persons responsible for the administration of guidance in secondary schools will find the book an indispensable aid in establishing sat-

isfactory methods for measuring the effectiveness of guidance activities.

L. R. McDONALD

*Woodruff Senior High School
Peoria, Illinois*

NEW EMPHASIS IN THRIFT EDUCATION.—

To most of us thrift means the saving of money and little else. Thrift can, however, be carried over into many other phases of human living. During a time when shortages are forever upon us, when society is calling for more and more goods, when Mr. Average Citizen is faced with scarcities in all products, from meat to soap to automobiles, a book presenting a new slant on thrift is timely and very much in order.¹ The author suggests the possibilities of extending thrift education into all the areas of human living. Mental, physical, social, spiritual, and emotional life, he believes, are all closely related to the subject of thrift.

The publication begins with a discussion of saving. The advantages and the disadvantages of a savings account at a local bank and of one at a savings and loan association are clearly presented. Postal savings and United States government bonds are also explained here. Earning, saving time, health, materials, food, and clothing—each claims a chapter for itself. The section on earning shows that discontinuing school before being adequately prepared for a vocation may, in later life, prove to be disastrous. Attention is given to the numerous instances in which time is lost and also to irregular health habits which lead to losses in both time and money, and suggestions are made to help reduce these losses to a minimum. The possibility of being thrifty through the saving of materials, food, and clothing at home and in school and in other public places receives attention. This all leads to the realization that thrift can be practiced by everyone, every day, everywhere. Valuable hints about

¹ Harry C. McKown, *Adventures in Thrift*. Topeka, Kansas: School Activities Publishing Co., 1946. Pp. xii + 306. \$2.00.

wise investing, spending, and giving are also included. In the discussion of wise investing, the merits of the various types of life insurance receive special treatment. Likewise, the common pitfalls of spending as they accost the average shopper receive their share of attention. The author further lays bare some of the more common faults of charity drives and tag days. A chapter which suggests a few of the more important traits of personality and a most valuable "personal bank account" concludes the book.

This publication presents a field for thrift education which is generally overlooked. The material has been organized around situations which are normal in the school life of the average boy and girl. Technical discussion has been held to a minimum. Unusual chapter headings arouse the reader's attention and curiosity. For example, "A Convention in Misery Land" leads to a discussion of thrift as it is related to health; "Beautiful Love Letters," to the explanation of life insurance as an investment. The whole publication is clearly a new and wholesome approach to the subject of thrift.

The book could hardly be used for a textbook, although it should be on the shelf of every secondary school, to give aid in developing thrift habits among its students. For the teacher who is preparing home-room or assembly programs or for a guidance officer who is trying to develop a worthy and sensible personal thrift program, this book has particular value.

E. J. WOLLMAN

Chicago, Illinois

A WARTIME MISCELLANY OF UNITED STATES FOREIGN RELATIONS.—During the war a number of books were written for the purpose of creating a fighting spirit and arousing American opposition to the Axis nations. The volume which is the subject of this review,¹ although published in 1946, may be placed in that classification. The dis-

¹ Emil Lengyel, *America's Role in World Affairs*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xii+318. \$1.60.

cussion lacks objectivity and is not documented. The general bibliography of twenty-one items includes only one that was published prior to 1940. The author's free expression of personal opinion and unsupported assumptions bear witness to the influence of wartime propaganda.

The book includes discussions of various phases of United States foreign policy: the Monroe Doctrine; the Open Door in the East; our European policy; the new era in foreign affairs under Franklin D. Roosevelt; the United States and the Soviet Union; and types of world organizations to promote peace. The Appendix contains the text of the Fourteen Points set forth by President Wilson in 1918; the Atlantic Charter; declarations of the Allies at Moscow, Cairo, and Teheran; and the Charter of the United Nations.

The discussion of the League of Nations leaves this writer with the impression that the author is trying to convince the reader that the American people and their senators who refused to accept the League proposal were very unwise. The author ventures the assertion that "Wilson recognized that the United States was a part of the world" (p. 82). Presumably this is to suggest that the interests of this country are world-wide, as are the interests of other nations. How all the nations of the world can co-operate in the areas where their interests conflict is a problem with which the discussion makes little progress.

The book was ostensibly written for use in schools, where it might become a tool used by a teacher in "the fundamental job of training intelligence and building up to the status of a habit the process of clear thinking" (p. ix). However, the inconsistencies and misstatements to be noted in the book are, rather, a detriment to clear thinking. For example, the author exaggerates the position of the isolationists in the United States by saying that they turned their backs on the rest of the world. He makes the statement: "But we had a foreign policy that was isolationist" (p. 99). Later there appears a con-

tradictory statement: "But it becomes clear from all this that the United States was never really isolationist" (p. 158). In a reference to World War I, the author says, "We entered the earlier war when it was already drawing to its close" (p. 5). Again, there is a statement indicating that Spain's colonies revolted during the era of the Holy Alliance (p. 26), but the fact is the colonies revolted in 1810, while the Holy Alliance was not formed until 1815.

Readers of this volume may also take exception to the author's use of flippant expressions in alluding to certain critical episodes in the history of our foreign relations. The following are illustrations.

When the Spanish-American war broke out we went into Cuba. It became apparent that for the protection of our far-flung realm our navy must have greater mobility and the Panama Canal seemed to be the answer. The Republic of Colombia, where we wanted to build the canal, could not read the writing on the wall [p. 34].

We were not in the position of the British who had to go into the world in search of adventure and livelihood or else starve on their tight little island [p. 45].

But the German Blunder was in the making. The American merchantman "Robin Hood" [evidently the "Robin Moor" is meant] was torpedoed and shelled in the South Atlantic on May 21, 1941, by what was assumed to be a German submarine. American public opinion was deeply aroused. Said bluff Senator Carter Glass: "I think we ought to go over there and shoot hell out of every U-boat" [p. 129].

The value of this book is decidedly negative. What is needed in the schools is more objective and more precise accounts of events in world history. Educators should take the lead in providing such books, thereby helping the cause of world peace.

C. H. SCHUTTER

Steinmetz High School
Chicago, Illinois

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

GARRISON, KARL C. *The Psychology of Adolescence*. New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946 (third edition). Pp. xx+356. \$4.65.

HARTLEY, RUTH EDITH. *Sociality in Pre-adolescent Boys*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 918. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946. Pp. 118. \$1.85.

LEWIS, CLAUDIA. *Children of the Cumberland*. New York 27: Columbia University Press, 1946. Pp. xviii+218. \$2.75.

LUZURIAGA, LORENZO. *Historia de la educación pública*. Buenos Aires, Argentina: Editorial Losada, S.A. Pp. 248.

McKOWN, HARRY C. *Home Room Guidance*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946 (second edition). Pp. xx+522. \$3.75.

MURSELL, JAMES L. *Successful Teaching: Its Psychological Principles*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xii+338. \$3.00.

REED, ANNA Y. *Occupational Placement: Its History, Philosophies, Procedures, and Educational Implications*. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1946. Pp. xii+350. \$3.75.

ROBINSON, HELEN MANSFIELD. *Why Pupils Fail in Reading*. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. xiv+258. \$3.00.

Twentieth Century Education: Recent Developments in American Education. Edited by P. F. Valentine. New York 16: Philosophical Library, 1946. Pp. 655+ix. \$7.50.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BLACKMORE, R. D. *Lorna Doone*. Adapted by Henry I. Christ and Jerome Carlin. New

- York 10: Globe Book Co., 1946. Pp. vi+232. \$1.44.
- CROSS, E. A., and CROSS, NEAL M. *Literature: A Series of Anthologies: Heritage of World Literature*. New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1946. Pp. xii+628. \$3.00.
- DE SAUZÉ, E. B. *Nouveau cours pratique de Français: Pour commençants*. Philadelphia 7: John C. Winston Co., 1946. Pp. xxvi+262.
- HOROWITZ, CAROLINE, and HART, HAROLD. *The Jumbo Fun Book*. New York 19: Hart Publishing Co. (43 West Fifty-seventh Street), 1946. Pp. 190. \$1.50.
- NORVELL, GEORGE W., and HOVIOUS, CAROL. *Conquest*, Book I. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. x+598. \$2.00.
- POWERS, SAMUEL RALPH; NEUNER, ELSIE FLINT; BRUNER, HERBERT BASCOM; and BRADLEY, JOHN HODGDON. *Directed Activities I. Workbook for Exploring Our World*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1946 (new edition). Pp. x+120+tests. \$0.64.
- POWERS, SAMUEL RALPH; NEUNER, ELSIE FLINT; BRUNER, HERBERT BASCOM; and BRADLEY, JOHN HODGDON. *Adventuring in Science: Using Our World*. Boston 17: Ginn & Co., 1946 (new edition). Pp. vi+684. \$2.16.
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